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ABSTRACT

Nine articles reviewing and summarizing the literature on topics pertinent to the community and junior college are included in this monograph. An overview of the background and present status of the community junior college, by Collins W. Burnett, serves as an introduction to the specialized topics that follow. "The History and Development of the Private Junior College," by James F. Kastner, examines its role, developmental influences, early models, and current problems. "The Community College as an Export Product," by Zenaida L. Caintric, examines the adoption of the community college idea in Australia, Canada, Ceylon, the Dominican Republic, Great Britain, Japan, Jordan, Chile, Columbia, and the Philippines. "Native and Transfer Students: Are More Comparisons Necessary?," by Phoebe Smith, summarizes research findings to date. "The Student Personnel Program in the Community/Junior College," by Ted H. Cudnick, examines the need for unique and dynamic programs. "The Transfer Problem Between the Two-Year and the Four-Year College," by Wanda D. Bigham, discusses the transfer student, the nature of the problem, and improvements. "Faculty in the Two-Year College," by Randall W. Dahl, examines a variety of faculty characteristics. "The Community College and Its Role in Allied Health Education," by Christine Dubay, discusses the historical relationship between the two. "Articulation," by Ben W. Carr, Jr., examines needs, purposes, and methods for community college articulation. (LH)

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THE COMMUNITY AND JUNIOR COLLEGE

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EDITOR'S NOTE

This publication represents an effort by the Center for Professional Development to support the research and development activities of the various instructional departments of the College of Education. For the Department of Higher Education, it represents an effort to integrate teaching and research in a productive manner for both the graduate students who were researchers and learners and for others who may profit from the papers presented herein.

The Center for Professional Development is pleased to have had a part in planning, editing, and publishing this publication.

Fred Edmonds— Director and Editor
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THE COMMUNITY AND JUNIOR COLLEGE

Guest Editor
Collins W. Burnett

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PREFACE

There were two reasons for wanting to develop this publication. In the first place, the predecessor publication, *The Two-Year Institution in American Higher Education*, which was published in 1971, needed to be brought up to date. Although the older publication was received well, the planning was more afterthought than forethought. The planning for the present publication, *The Community and Junior College*, was begun long before the actual writing was underway. The editor, who was also the professor for the course, selected the topics and assigned them later to the graduate students in EDH 734 (The Community and Junior College). The topics were chosen by the editor either because they had not been presented in the literature to the extent of their importance or because these topics had been presented without adequate conceptualization, depth of thinking and intensive review of the literature.

After the idea for publishing was reviewed and approved by Dr. Fred Edmonds, Director of the Center for Professional Development, College of Education, the plan was discussed with the students, and the preparation of the manuscripts was underway. Although the editor knew about the writing ability of most of the students, a short paper was assigned and completed in order that he could have a writing sample from everyone. The evaluation indicated that every student was capable of developing a satisfactory manuscript with direction and careful criticism from the editor. Due to a limitation of funds, five of the manuscripts subsequently had to be omitted from this publication.

The second reason for wanting to do this publication is a part of the rationale that caused Eliot Wigginton who worked with his high school students to develop and publish *The Foxfire Book* (Anchor Press Doubleday, Garden City, New York, 1972). The graduate students in The Community and Junior College course were not professional writers in the study of Higher Education, but their research, thinking, organizing, and composition needed to be expressed in print. From the student point of view, developing a manuscript for publication was a unique experience. For some it will never happen again. For others this opportunity may motivate them to have a long-term interest in researching and writing. To many in the group, it was fun and exciting and rewarding. The editor, the professor, who was involved with each in developing his manuscript, felt the reflection of this excitement and camaraderie. The vignettes of these students, About the Authors, at the end of this publication should help personalize their writing for the reader.

—Collins W. Burnett

OVERVIEW: BACKGROUND AND PRESENT STATUS

Collins W. Burnett

Both the community and the junior college are a part of American higher education; that is, they are characterized by an organization of formal learning experiences into programs which lead to a recognized degree, e.g., associate of arts, associate of science. Both are also a part of post-secondary education which, according to Trivett (1973), is a broader term than higher education. Post-secondary education includes not only the recognized, formal degree-granting institutions (two-year and four-year), but also all learning opportunities available to people who are beyond the compulsory high school age. This extensive range includes vocational schools, private technical institutions, business schools, correspondence courses, and educational programs conducted for employees in business, industry, military, and at all levels of government.

Some definitions are necessary in order to clarify terminology which can be confusing, particularly because some of the writers use terms very loosely in referring to two-year institutions.

The community college, which is the major growth area in the junior college classification, is probably the most significant development in American higher education thus far in the 20th century. Referred to sometimes as a modern social invention or phenomenon, the community college is the people's college in the sense that it reflects the egalitarian philosophy of the 1970's; moreover, programs are determined by and are constantly adjusted to the needs of people in the local community which may be an urban center, a rural center, a county, or several counties. It is a part of the people rather than apart from the people.

Consisting of programs which include terminal one-year or two-year options and the transfer program for those students who want to continue at a four-year institution to earn the baccalaureate degree, the truly comprehensive community college must have the following five characteristics according to Fields (1962):

1) Democratic in the sense that the community college has an open admissions program to people of all ages with a wide range of abilities and interests, easily accessible in the community, and either low or no tuition.

2) Comprehensive programming to meet all of the needs of people in the immediate area served by the college. These programs include the liberal arts or transfer curriculum, technical and semi-professional, remedial or developmental, community services, and scheduling arranged to provide needed courses from 8 am to 10 pm.
3) Community centered in that the college is the people's college and is intended to meet the educational needs of people in that particular community served by the college. The community resources are used as a learning laboratory by students who earn income from full-time or part-time jobs in stores, offices, and industry. In many instances what the student learns at the college in accounting, nursing, stenographic skills, or banking is put to use in the local area so that the formal learning is reinforced by the related job experience. Likewise, faculty at the college are a vital part of community affairs, participating in church, political affairs, community clubs, and fund-raising campaigns.
4) Adaptable from the standpoint that the college always tries to meet the changing needs of people for new learning experiences by identifying these needs and translating them into learning programs. As new curriculum areas develop, old ones may be discontinued if they are no longer needed. The community college constantly tries to adjust to the needs of individuals rather than to expect students to adjust to the college.
5) Provide life-long learning. If the major objective of learning is to cause people to want to be learners as long as they live, the community college provides opportunities for any one who is 18 years or older. The individual whether he or she is 18 years old or 70 years old may want to enroll in one course or finish an associate degree program. As the individual progresses through the life cycle from teen ager to working in a job to getting married and having children to retiring, he or she may continue to relate to the college for formal courses to workshops dealing with post- retirement counseling.

The term, "junior college," in a generic sense, includes all organized patterns of learning experiences on a two-year basis (freshman and sophomore years) beyond high school. Included in this broad term are many types of junior colleges such as church-related, private, public, federal, proprietary, community, and county. The area vocational school, technical institute, and university branch center are not included within this term. For the purpose of this paper, the term *community college* will refer to all public two-year institutions and particularly, the comprehensive community college. *Private junior college* will refer to both church and independent junior colleges. The term *junior college* will refer to all two-year institutions at the lower division level except the ones excluded in the above definition.

Historical Background

Certain cultural forces established the background for the system of American education. The same forces that brought about free public education at the elementary and secondary levels later had an effect on public higher

education. Among these cultural forces were the effects of the Revolutionary War which created for the first time a democratic attitude toward education, religion, and free enterprise. Other strong, cultural influences were the influence of leading personalities such as Benjamin Franklin, Thomas Jefferson, and Andrew Jackson; expansion of the frontier; the shift to an industrial society; and the rise of organized labor.

Although the nine early colleges founded between 1636 and 1769 were well established by the beginning of the Revolution, it was not until nearly the middle of the 19th century that the concept of the private junior college was started.

According to Blocker, et al., (1965), the first private junior college was Monticello College founded in 1835. Vincennes University in Indiana, which is now a community college, traces its origin to 1801, but it has not always been a two-year institution. Some think that Decatur Baptist College in Texas, established in 1897, may be the oldest junior college in continuous existence (Burnett, 1968).

The first public junior college was started in 1902 in Joliet, Illinois, through the influence of William Rainey Harper, the first president of the University of Chicago. Harper may have known about private junior colleges through correspondence or visiting in the southern coastal states, but the concept developed from his perception that the greatness of the University of Chicago would be determined by a strong upper division program and an outstanding graduate school (Storr, 1966). He also believed that lower division or junior college could be eliminated from the university program by establishing a system of feeder institutions which would provide transfer students to the senior division or college (junior and senior years) at the University. Harper's plan included the strategy of attempting to persuade some four-year colleges, e.g., Muskingum College, his alma mater at New Concord, Ohio, to convert to a two-year program (Burnett, 1968).

Two other points about historical development should be made. First, it is this writer's observation that there is a parallelism between the founding and development of the land-grant movement and the community college movement. Both were results of social pressure for an extension of higher education to more people. Both were products of eras when people were becoming aware of social and economic forces which required different approaches to the traditional curriculum. Of course, Harper's concept of the early public junior college was the product of two viewpoints: one was to enable the University of Chicago to become famous for its upper division and graduate programs; the other was to make the first two years of college more accessible to more people (Storr, 1966). As the concept of the community college developed, the concern about serving people came to outweigh the plan to save the noble character of the research oriented university.

A second point that needs to be stressed is that the development of the public junior college and later the comprehensive community college occurred within the context of identifiable social forces. Some of these major forces were:

1) Change from agrarian era to a society characterized by engineering and technological development.

2) Shift from small towns to urban centers.
3) Pressure to change the typical four-year college curriculum which was not in line with the needs of many people.

Table 1 shows three historical periods in American higher education with corresponding changes and development in the type of college and in the curriculum and the related changes in philosophy. All three periods were products of socio-economic and political forces of those respective eras. The first period (1636-1850), which was the era of colonial colleges and the expansion of the liberal arts concept, was characterized by a philosophy that was autocratic or elitist. Until near the end of this era only young men, for the most part, were admitted to college. Not always, but usually, because a college education was expensive, the parents were upper-middle class or well-to-do people.

The second period (1850-1950) was dominated by the development of the land-grant college and the expansion of the university. A meritocratic philosophy prevailed; namely, anyone who was motivated and had the necessary academic credentials should be admitted to college.

The third period (1950-present) can be characterized by the amazing growth and influence of the community college and the development of the super star, the multiversity. The philosophy that has been predominant so far in this period is egalitarianism: that is, anyone has access to some sector of higher education who has a high school diploma or is 18 years of age or older. American society has moved from the concept of elitism to mass to universal higher education.

TABLE 1

Historical and Philosophical Development in American Higher Education

Time Period	*Type of College*	*Philosophy*
1636-1850	Colonial Colleges and Expansion of Liberal Arts Colleges	Autocratic or Elitism
1850-1950	Land-grant Colleges and Expansion of the University	Meritocratic
1950-present	Community Colleges and Multiversities	Egalitarianism

Community College Movement

There was a span of development of 60 years between the first public junior college at Joliet, Illinois, in 1902, and Fields' book (1962) which was the landmark for the development of the community college and, especially, for the comprehensive community college. Today, there are many community colleges, but perhaps only 50 percent can be referred to as comprehensive community colleges according to the criteria proposed by Fields (1962).

Perhaps Brunner (1970) has given more attention to the historical development of junior college philosophy than other writers. He pointed out

that in 1902 Harper considered the junior college a good terminal place for students not qualified for the university and for those who lacked the courage to compete in the four-year setting. McDowell in 1921, according to Brunner (1970), extended the philosophy and goals and purpose by stating that the junior college met specific local needs, enabled youth to stay at home, and provided a completion school for those not qualified to go further.

Koos, in 1921, according to Brunner (1970), expanded the philosophy to provide occupational training, popularize higher education, and allow exploration for careers.

Thomas in 1929 stated four objectives: popularize higher education, prepare students for transfer to the four-year institution, provide terminal programs, and provide guidance for personal development and career preparation.

Bogue and others restated and amplified Thomas' statements, according to Brunner (1970); and finally Fields (1962) developed the five criteria, already referred to, to determine whether or not the two-year institution was a comprehensive community college.

In spite of some problems and weaknesses, the community college has made a significant impact on American higher education. Monroe (1972) pointed out that community colleges or some form of the public two-year junior college was operating in all but one of the 50 states,* enrolling about 30 percent of all undergraduate students. According to *The Chronicle of Higher Education* (1974), the total enrollment in all public and private junior colleges for the fall of 1974 was about 3,275,974, an 11.9 percent increase over 1973-74, while the total enrollment in all higher education for the fall of 1974 showed only a 5.5 percent increase over the previous year.

According to the *Community Junior and Technical College Directory* (1976), which includes the period from October, 1974, to August, 1975, there were 1,230 two-year institutions with a total enrollment of 4,169,279, which was a 15.4 percent increase over the preceding year. Of this number, there were 1,014 public institutions with an enrollment of 3,921,542, or a gain of 15.5 percent over the previous year. Included in the total enrollment data were 216 independent two-year colleges with an enrollment of 147,737, or a gain of 11.2 percent. Although these enrollment data represent the largest yearly increase since 1968, one should remember that enrollments in technical institutes and two-year branch campuses were included along with data for all two-year colleges. Enrollments vary from about 200 students in a small private junior college to approximately 38,000 at a large institution such as Miami-Dade in Florida. Most of the private junior colleges have small enrollments.

The most recent enrollment data (*The Chronicle of Higher Education*, Vol. XIII, No. 12, 1976) indicated that the total enrollment for two-year and four-year institutions for the fall of 1976 was 11,337,000, while about 4,086,000 were enrolled in two-year institutions.

Since the trend in enrollment seems irreversible in favor of public higher education, continued increases in the number of community colleges and in

*California with the largest number of community colleges of any state had 104 as of January, 1977.

enrollment can be expected. Medsker and Tillery (1971) recommended in a study done for the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education that 230 to 280 new community colleges be created by 1980. Thompson (1970) showed that in 1950 about 50 percent of all college enrollment was in the public sector. By 1985 he projected that about 85 percent of college enrollment will be in the public sector.

One other way to test the importance of the community college is to determine to what extent the 50 states have developed a state agency to coordinate or control the community college. Wattanbarger and Sakaguchi (1971) reported that this development had occurred in 43 states.

The concept and influence of the junior college has been noticeable for some time in other countries of the world, particularly in Japan, Canada, Jordan, Ceylon, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, and Peru (Yarrington, 1970).

Research

That, until recently, there has been very little sophisticated research about junior colleges or their students either on a regional or a national basis is a valid criticism. Cross (1968) mentioned in her study of the characteristics of the junior college student that this type of research was a new phenomenon. About half of her references were dated 1966 or 1967; she did not even bother with sporadic research efforts prior to 1960. Her major contribution was the interpretation of data from the SCOPE (School to College: Opportunities for Post-secondary Education) study which followed 90,000 high school graduates as they moved into jobs, marriage, and post-secondary education.

Richards, Rand, and Rand (1965) made a major contribution to the study of junior college environments in their factor analysis of 36 measures of junior college characteristics. Panos (1966) studied nearly 7,000 entering freshmen in a sample of junior colleges to report on such variables as parents' educational and racial backgrounds, high school academic achievement, and educational aspirations. Hoyt and Munday (1966) studied the academic potential and college grades of junior college freshmen, reported the predicted validity of American College Testing data, and compared the results for 85 junior colleges with those of 20 four-year colleges. Another research report dealt with a national emphasis which considered institutional characteristics, student characteristics, and prediction of success in junior colleges (*The Two-year College and Its Students: An Empirical Report*, 1969).

A significant study by Knoell and Medsker (1965), which should be a part of the repertoire of both high school and college counselors, dealt with 7,243 junior college students who transferred in 1960 to 43 four-year colleges and universities in 10 states. These researchers noted three findings about the transfer student. One, he had a better chance to succeed academically at the four-year college if he completed two years rather than one at the junior college. Two, about two-thirds of entering freshmen at the junior college indicated they planned to transfer to a four-year institution; only about one-third transferred. Three, although there was an initial drop in grade point average after the junior college group transferred to the four-year institution, at the time of receiving the baccalaureate degree the scholastic achievement of the

transfer group was similar to that of the native group, with a slight edge in favor of the latter.

Trent and Medsker (1967) did a comprehensive five-year study of a sample of 10,000 students to determine their patterns of employment and college attendance following graduation from high school.

Since 1970 a number of significant research studies and scholarly books have been published. The importance of the community college and the private junior college has caught the attention of researchers and writers. Rodgers (1972) developed a separate set of standardized factor scores for each of the 621 community colleges and the 151 private junior colleges listed in *American Junior Colleges* (Gleazer, 1971). From his analysis of the two sets of standardized factor scores he developed two sets of factor labels. He arrived at two important findings: (1) there is enough difference between private and public junior colleges to warrant the conclusion that these two sectors cannot be grouped together, and (2) there was no difference between colleges supported by state appropriations, local taxes, and student fees, and those supported by state appropriations and student fees only.

As far as recent, general, significant books are concerned, four should be mentioned. Blocker, Plummer, and Richardson (1965) interpreted the social synthesis of the two-year college. More recently Richardson, Blocker, and Bender (1972) published the best treatment of governance for the two-year institution. Cohen and Associates (1971) treated the community college as a constant variable in a critical analysis of the institution, students, faculty, and programs. Monroe (1972) developed a profile of the major aspects of the community college which can be used as a reference or as a textbook for graduate students.

Two national study groups have produced notable publications which have a focus in the community college. The Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, which was formed in 1967 and completed its study of higher education in 1975, recently has published three volumes that are noteworthy.

The Open-Door Colleges: Policies for Community Colleges (1971) was a special report with recommendations which emphasized the comprehensive community college with the full range of program options and an "open-door" access to all qualified individuals.

Although *Less Time, More Options* (1971) did not deal directly with the junior college, many of the recommendations and comments do relate to this area. For example, the point is made that the federal government has the responsibility of "assisting the spread of community colleges across the 50 states" (p. 25). One of the goals for the future is that by 1980 community colleges be available to most people in all of the states.

Medsker and Tillery (1971) made a strong recommendation in *Breaking the Access Barriers* that from 230 to 280 new community colleges be developed by 1980. Although the major attention is to community colleges (as it should be), Chapter 8 deals specifically with the nature, problems, and future of the private junior college.

The second national study group, the Newman Committee, published its *Report on Higher Education* (1971), in which it devoted only one short chapter

to the community college with a closing admonition that community colleges need to produce and live up to the term "community" in meeting the specific needs of students.

Programs

As was noted previously, all but one of the states had community colleges operating by 1972, according to Monroe (1972). It should be made very clear, however, that this statement needs careful consideration. In some states, for example, there is only one community college; Indiana is a case in point. In other states the set of community colleges may be inadequate in meeting the needs in the state due to a narrow philosophy or restricted budgets. In still other states, the lack of effective programs may be due to poor quality leadership on the part of the several community college presidents or, perhaps, the lack of leadership in the state coordinating board for public higher education.

Typically, the comprehensive community college as described by Fields (1962) has the following pattern of programs: (1) one-year and two-year terminal programs in the technical and semi-professional areas such as data processing technician, technical illustrator, soils technician, civil engineering technician, nursing, and dental technology; (2) general education; (3) liberal arts for those who plan to transfer to a four-year institution; (4) developmental, which not only includes such remedial areas as reading skills, study skills, and writing skills, but also pre-college freshman level courses in chemistry, mathematics, and physics for those who want to enroll in programs which require one or more high school units in a particular content area; (5) student services which include counseling, testing, orientation, and extra-class activities; and (6) community services which include dozens of short-term workshops, seminars, and institutes involving citizens in the community in the gamut of such programs.

A variation of this program arrangement is illustrated by the University of Kentucky Community College System (13 units), which includes 12 community colleges and a technical institute. In order to avoid any caste system, the terminology of general education, liberal arts, and technical and semi-professional areas has been replaced by four divisions which constitute the academic organization in each community college. These divisions are: biological science and related teaching fields; physical science and related teaching fields; social science and related teaching fields; and arts and humanities and related teaching fields (Burnett, 1976).

One major emphasis in the community college which amazes many persons is that of continuing education or, perhaps a more appropriate term, continuing learning. The community college has become the symbol of life-long learning. Programs are available to recent high school enrollees, to people in the professions, business, industry, and housewives who may or may not have one or more college degrees, and to the more mature adult who may be in his 60's or 70's. Cuyahoga Community College in Cleveland has Golden Age Scholarships; the University of Kentucky has Donovan Scholarships. These kinds of student aid are intended for senior citizens and usually mean free tuition.

Another dimension of community college programs is that of flexibility. If citizens in Louisville, Kentucky, request a new program in hotel and restaurant management, faculty at Jefferson Community College, with the help of a lay advisory committee, can determine need, cost, resources, and the components in such a terminal program and announce it for student registration within one semester. Likewise, if such a program were started in 1977 to meet a need in Jefferson County, the same program could be terminated when the need was met.

Current Development

The major concern among the 234 private junior colleges (independent or church related) is to survive from year to year. There are some exceptions to this gloomy statement, but for the most part the problems of increased costs and decreased enrollments have hit the private junior college harder than its public counterpart. Among the closings of nine two-year colleges listed in *The Chronicle of Higher Education* (1973), for example, seven were private and two were public.

In order to survive, a number of private junior colleges have accepted students with disadvantaged backgrounds as far as academic abilities are concerned. In doing so, these colleges have had to develop learning centers where special training is provided in study skills and reading and writing skills.

Moreover, it is this writer's observation on the basis of visits to a number of private junior colleges that the curriculum in some instances has changed from that of the traditional liberal arts or college preparatory to one more adapted to student needs in the local community and the changes in the labor market. Secretarial courses, health science programs, business and industrial technologies are becoming more frequent by far than was true 10 years ago.

The community college seems to be healthy and prospering in 1976 as far as enrollments and appropriate relationships to different groups of clients are concerned. Some writers, however, are becoming increasingly critical of the community college perhaps as a consequence of becoming more realistic in assessing the pros and cons of this significant area in higher education. Zwerling (1976), in *Second Best*, emphasized the crisis of the community college. He pointed out that this type of college is one more hurdle between the poor and the disadvantaged and the upward mobility they seek in the social system. Not only may the motivational level of the students in community colleges be lower than that for their counterparts in four-year colleges and universities, they may actually be counseled into settling for a less desirable career plan than might be suggested to students in four-year institutions.

Another current development is that due to increasing costs some systems such as the City University of New York (CUNY) have ended the great experiment in open admissions (*The Chronicle of Higher Education*, April 12, 1976). The CUNY open admissions policy, which was begun in 1970, applied to four-year as well as the community colleges. In view of the recent policy change, however, only students in the upper 75 percent of their high school graduating class or those with a high school grade average of 70 will be admitted to the community colleges. Enrollment estimated last spring in CUNY at about

225,000 probably would have been even larger in the fall of 1976 had not the admissions policy been changed.

A third current development is that there are instances in which two or more community colleges are being merged in order to save costs (*The Chronicle of Higher Education*, April 12, 1976). In CUNY, for example, Eugenia Moria de Hostos Community College will be merged with Bronx Community College, and Richmond College will be merged with Staten Island Community College. Three years ago in *The Chronicle* report of openings, closings, and mergers, no community college mergers were reported (September 24, 1973).

A fourth current development is that due to lack of finances some systems like Florida will have to deny admission to several thousand students. Enrollment in the 28 community colleges in Florida in 1975 was 158,000, but the state had provided funds for only 143,000. The additional 15,000 students had to be provided for without state support. (*The Chronicle of Higher Education*, March 29, 1976). About 5,000 students have been turned away from community colleges since the fall of 1975 according to the same source.

If a moratorium is declared on enrollment growth in community colleges in Florida or in any state, the concept of open admissions will be jeopardized if not destroyed. Should this development occur on any widespread basis, the basic philosophy of the community college will be threatened.

A fifth development which may become more than an academic concern is the increasing pressure for community and junior colleges to employ faculty with Ph.D.'s who have little or no understanding of goals, students, or programs within the context of a two-year institution, particularly a community college. As the job market has made the placement more and more difficult for Ph.D.'s in English, history, foreign language, psychology, and other liberal arts, the pressure has increased from universities for the community colleges to employ their graduates. Burnett (1971) pointed out that unless the doctoral graduate in a discipline had some orientation to the community college environment not only would that person be unhappy, but the "Trojan Horse phenomenon" would become reality. In other words, the faculty member with a Ph.D. in a discipline without understanding the community college is likely to compensate for his unhappiness by trying to transform the college into a familiar setting, namely, convert to a baccalaureate program and then establish Master's and Ph.D. programs.

A sixth development is that of an ever increasing competition which faces the community college. In some states there are systems of area vocational schools or of technical institutes financed by the state which not only overlap programs in the community colleges but may duplicate them. Kentucky is an example of the former, while Ohio with 18 state-supported technical institutes is an example of the latter. Moreover, some public four-year institutions have created community colleges on their own campuses to evade legislation forbidding any public regional college from developing a community college except on its own campus. Kentucky is an example of this condition.

Some private four-year institutions have developed a series of two-year associate degree programs or in fact a unit called a community college. Morris

Harvey College in Charleston, West Virginia, which is a private four-year college, has developed 13 two-year associate degree programs, including one of the best nursing programs in the state, radiologic technology, banking and finance, modern music, and data processing. Rio Grande College in Ohio is an example of a four-year college with a state-assisted community college on its own campus.

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THE HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE PRIVATE JUNIOR COLLEGE

James F. Kastner

The earliest private junior colleges in this country preceded the public junior college or the community college by many years. Blocker, et al., (1965) commented that Monticello College in 1835 and Susquehanna University in 1858 were the first and second private, two-year institutions to be established as junior colleges. The first public junior college was not founded until 1902, at Joliet, Illinois.

Regardless of why the private junior college was originally started, Blocker, et al., (1965) stated that this type of institution continued to expand because various religious denominations wanted to provide advanced education for young people which stressed religious beliefs of the various church groups.

In 1900 there were eight private two-year institutions which were educating a combined total of 100 students. Thornton (1960) noted that 1921 was a significant year in the development of the two-year college because, although by this date there were 137 private institutions compared to only 70 public junior colleges, the public institutions for the first time enrolled more students than their privately controlled counterparts. Out of 16,000 students enrolled in two-year colleges in that year, 8,349 or 52 percent, were studying in public institutions. The private colleges never regained their predominance after this. More recent figures taken from the 1976 edition of the *Community and Junior College Directory* list 1230 two-year institutions of varying descriptions in operation in 1975. The enrollment for these colleges totaled 4,169,279, but only 147,737 attended private junior colleges.

Obviously, the private two-year institution has suffered through some difficult times in recent years, as has its counterpart on the four-year level. The purposes of this paper are to determine what the private two-year college is, what role it has played and continues to play in American higher education, and what has been its history and development.

Role of the Private Junior College in American Higher Education

Hillway (1958) described the private junior college as an institution offering two years of collegiate instruction to a student body drawn from all areas of the United States and from abroad. It is not primarily a community-serving

institution as is its publicly supported opposite number, the community college. The typical junior college curriculum is oriented to collegiate work equal to the freshman and sophomore years in a four-year college or university.

There are basically two types of the private two-year college. The first type is the denominational or church-related institution affiliated with a particular religious organization. It may receive part or all of its support from this group, and often its faculty and student body predominantly are members of the faith of the sponsoring body. Usually, some religious course work is offered in these institutions and this work may be required rather than an elective.

Private independent junior colleges, the second type of institution, may also be supported by a church organization, though no religious demands are made on the student body. Financing is obtained through endowments, gifts, and contributions, as well as tuition.

Hillway (1958) pointed out that there was no clear definition of goals propounded for the public two-year institution until 1927, when Frank W. Thomas stated four primary functions. Although Thomas' thinking related primarily to the public junior college in California, these functions apply to private junior colleges as well. They are:

1) To prepare students for entry into four-year colleges and universities
2) To popularize and stimulate post-secondary education
3) To provide curricula for semi-professional careers
4) To provide a guidance service for students.

Hillway (1958) listed other goals of two-year colleges. These included superior teaching by the faculty, since research is not a requirement of a teaching appointment at the two-year level. There is also greater opportunity for individualized instruction and exploration of various academic fields, not only because the faculty has more time to devote to students, but also because classes are generally smaller in size. Another function, especially prevalent among denominational institutions, is that of character building. Efforts are made to build and maintain a strong moral fiber among the student body.

The junior college has a more lenient admissions policy than many senior institutions. Thus, students who are slow learners or who are in need of strengthening a weak academic record may find the opportunity at a junior college. Finally, a private junior college often provides unique opportunities for cultural fulfillment and enrichment not found on larger campuses.

Social and Economic Factors Influencing Junior College Development

Brick (1964) has said that public high schools began to be established in America on a wide scale by the middle of the 19th century. As a result, in the second half of the century increasingly large numbers of students were graduating from high school and advancing on to college. Some American educators viewed this development with mixed emotions. With this influx of lower division students entering the nation's colleges, it was feared there would

be an increase in hooliganism, a higher level of immaturity, overcrowding, and a disproportionately higher dropout rate.

Coupled with these fears was the federal government's implementation of the Morrill Act of 1862, which contained provisions for the establishment of land-grant colleges to further the education of students in agriculture and the mechanical arts. Monroe (1974) noted that the state and public-supported colleges and universities were already well accepted for the most part by the time of the Civil War. The development of these state and land-grant institutions helped to encourage more students to further their education by providing non-classical and vocational instruction.

Availability of higher education and greater numbers of high school graduates were not the only reasons that college enrollments increased. Many Americans firmly believed that education represented the road to social advancement or mobility. Increasingly in the post-Civil War period, the United States evolved into an industrial society. With this development came higher standards of living for large portions of the population. As they became financially able, parents encouraged their children to acquire more education, in part because it would guarantee greater equality of opportunity, and because it was felt that social mobility would be achieved.

A final factor listed by Brick (1964) is that the American people began to accept the concept of education as the producer of social capital. As the United States grew in wealth and prestige and acquired sophistication, the demand for educated people increased. Consequently, it was not only more necessary to lengthen one's period of formal education, it was also becoming quite chic to do so.

All of these influences contributed to the development of the two-year college concept. As more people required and obtained greater amounts of education, existing institutions of higher learning became overcrowded and less able to handle the teaching load. Also, there were increasing demands for vocational and practical education, which many of the older colleges and universities did not offer. These four-year institutions were often too costly and their programs too lengthy and detailed to meet the needs of some potential students. Finally, there were certain groups who were often discouraged from attending 19th century colleges and universities. These included members of non-white races and women. In all of the above instances, the two-year college concept promised to provide solutions to the problems, demands, and requirements presented.

The German University Influence

While the above circumstances were influencing higher education and its development of alternative educational methods, a group of far-sighted educational leaders began to champion the two-year concept for a slightly different reason. Hillway (1958) has noted that American education fell under the influence of the German system of education by the second half of the 19th century. American higher education was intrigued with the German university model and its research orientation. Innovations from the German education

system that were brought to this country included the *Kindergarten* and the graduate school system. While higher education leaders were most interested in the graduate research concepts of the German model, another element also intrigued them. The *Gymnasium*, the equivalent of United States secondary education, had one major difference from its American counterpart. Unlike the American high school, which ended with the 12th grade, the *Gymnasium* ended with the 14th grade, eliminating the need for freshman and sophomore work at the college level. This plan freed the entering German student to concentrate on the senior level of academic work, which included research as a prime requisite. The system was also believed to insure a more mature student and one who was ready to perform serious, high caliber academic study.

Henry P. Tappan, who became president of the University of Michigan, spent some time in Europe studying higher education. Impressed with what he saw on the Continent, Tappan published *University Education* (1851) in which he described his visits to various European seats of higher learning. By far his most favorable impression was of the German universities. He described their excellence as consisting of two factors: first, they were purely universities, with no collegiate preparatory classes to interfere with their studies; second, they contained all of the resources, equipment, materials and personnel to perform their research functions.

Tappan (1851) explained that collegial preparation did not exist in the German universities because it was totally unnecessary. The student was fully prepared at the *Gymnasium* before being permitted to enter the university. Tappan suggested that the *Gymnasia* were the guardians, so to speak, of higher learning, guarding the entrance to the university. Although he called for American universities to pattern themselves on the German model he presented in *University Education*, Hillway (1958) stated that it was not until 1852 that Tappan called for the reform of American higher education by attaching the first two years of college level work to the top of the four-year high school. Students would not be allowed to enter the university until after completion of the 14th grade.

Brick (1964) noted that other professional educators of the period began to discuss reducing the first two years of collegiate work to the high school level. Men such as Edmund J. Jones of the University of Illinois, Richard H. Jesse of Missouri, David Starr Jordan of Stanford, and Nicholas M. Butler of Columbia University supported Tappan's general premise. William Watts Folwell, when he became president of the University of Minnesota in 1869, reiterated Tappan's proposal. He felt that students should not be admitted to the university until they were 20 years old.

Hillway (1958) noted that neither Tappan nor Folwell was interested in the two-year college concept. Both merely wished to strengthen the university and were not particularly interested in how the first and second years of college work were organized. It was felt that the extension of the high school to cover this period would prove quite acceptable.

Eells (1930) pointed out that the first real separation of college curricula between the upper and lower division came with the opening of the reorganized University of Chicago in 1892. William Rainey Harper, who had become

president of the institution and who masterminded the separation, at first called the senior division the "University College" and the lower division the "Academic College." But the terms proved awkward and were not readily used, so in 1896, Harper changed the terms to "Senior College" and "Junior College;" thus he was the first person to use the term to denote freshman and sophomore level work, according to Hillway (1958).

President Harper envisioned the addition of two years of college level work to high school programs, the creation of new two-year institutions where necessary, and the decapitation of weak four-year colleges to two-year institutions. In this way, lower-level college students would be kept from the main campus and the University would be free for more scholarly pursuits. Although his last proposal was not received very well by four-year colleges, three Baptist institutions in Texas followed Harper's advice and reduced their programs to two years. Brunner (1970) said that the main thrust of Harper's recommendations was directed toward weak four-year institutions, rather than toward established systems of new two-year institutions.

Harper created two feeder institutions for the University of Chicago: Bradley Institute in Peoria, Illinois (1897) and the Lewis Institute in Chicago (1896), to go with the junior college established at the University of Chicago. Eells (1930) called them the most historically outstanding examples of branch junior colleges under control of a private university.

Classes of Private Junior Colleges

Historically, there are four ways for a two-year institution to originate: (1) The first two years of the college curriculum may be separated from the upper-level course work within a university. (2) A high school or academy may elect to extend its course offerings upward into the first two years of post-secondary education. (3) Small, weak four-year colleges with limited resources and student bodies might elect to concentrate only on the first two years of higher education. (4) A new institution, concentrating on the freshman and sophomore levels of college level work, may be founded (Stanley, 1974).

It has already been mentioned above that the University of Chicago had a junior college on its own campus, as well as two additional feeder junior colleges in the Chicago area. Eells (1930) discussed other examples of the application of this formula. Johns Hopkins University and Stanford University both had separately organized and administered freshman and sophomore level work (Stanford's program dating from 1920). In the 1920's, these two universities were considering the abolition of the two lower-levels of academic work. The 13th and 14th grades were to be taught by independent junior colleges. Indeed, Stanford offered sites on its campus to a public and a private junior college for the purpose of providing this service to prospective Stanford students. In this way, it was felt that the academic work could be done under the influence of Stanford, but not under its control.

Columbia University established Seth Low Junior College in 1928. Although located in Brooklyn, rather than on the Columbia campus, it was directly affiliated with the university, and its purpose was to provide university preparation for students destined for Columbia. The University of Pittsburgh

established eight junior colleges in Johnstown, Uniontown, and Erie, Pennsylvania. Although the colleges utilized local school board facilities, the faculties were appointed by Pittsburgh, the curriculum was prescribed by the university, and the students' academic records were kept by the registrar's office on the University of Pittsburgh campus (Eells, 1930).

The second way for a two-year college to originate—by extending high school or academy course work upward—proved to be quite popular in the late 19th century. As has been stated earlier, Harper championed this method, and he encouraged the establishment of such an institution in Joliet, Illinois, in conjunction with the local high school. Hillway (1958) stated that an even earlier example of such an arrangement was at Greeley, Colorado, where the local high school added the 13th grade level in the 1880's. In addition, in the 1890's, the University of Michigan admitted several students to the sophomore class after they completed the 13th grade in Michigan high schools. Almost all of these experiments were given up after several years.

Private prep schools and academies also experimented with the addition of the 13th and 14th grades to their curriculum. In some instances, the plan was implemented because the school desired to upgrade itself and wished to move into the field of higher education. However, Hillway (1958) pointed out that most 19th century academies for boys continued at that educational level into the 20th century since they tended to serve as preparatory schools for private four-year colleges. On the other hand, academies for girls adopted the junior college curriculum into their programs more readily because of the lack of educational opportunities for women at the college and university levels which continue into the 20th century.

The third method of originating two-year college programs, that of decapitating weak four-year institutions in order to concentrate on the first two years of college work, was not popular with such colleges. Nevertheless, the idea was adopted by many such institutions merely to maintain their existence. Eells (1930) quoted Miss E.A. Colton of the Southern Regional Accrediting Agency as saying that between 1910 and 1916 over 60 institutions originally claiming to be colleges or universities had adopted the name junior college. Another example of a successful reduction in curriculum would be Decatur Baptist College of Texas, which discontinued its junior and senior levels of instruction in 1897. Together with several other Baptist institutions which followed its lead, the two-year colleges served as feeder schools for Baylor University and Baylor College.

The creation of a totally new institution is the fourth way of generating a junior college. This method has been utilized many times, especially by religious groups who have found it easier to offer higher education on the two-year level rather than the four-year or university level. In addition, at the turn of the century, many private benefactors, desirous of operating their own institution of higher learning, found the junior college a perfect vehicle for the fulfillment of their dreams.

Although private junior colleges may be divided by the methods of their establishment, these institutions may also be classed by their organization, administration, and goals. The majority of private junior colleges have been

and still are controlled by various religious denominations. In the mid-1920's, Koos (1925) estimated that approximately 75 percent of the private institutions were controlled by religious sects. Many junior colleges have always been under denominational control. In some cases, the board of trustees, or a portion of it, is elected by a regional church organization. Annual appropriations may come from this source also.

Denominational colleges have traditionally been strongest in the South and in border states. Leading religious sects in control of private two-year institutions include the Baptist and the Methodist churches. Presbyterians, Lutherans, Episcopalians, and Catholics have also been well-represented over the years.

Another class of junior college which has existed over the years is the proprietary two-year college. Although Eells (1930) credited it with being a relative latecomer to the scene, isolated examples may be found before World War I (Stanley, 1974). Such institutions were organized on a purely private, commercial, or proprietary basis. There were no governing bodies, since the founder normally served as the administrative head and sole authority. Today the training schools organized by some major industries serve as examples of what the proprietary junior college was like in terms of governance.

Hillway (1958) noted that in the past there have been some private junior colleges in existence operating without benefit of public funding. Although classified as community colleges in function, these institutions were not actually a part of the local school system, nor were they directly answerable to any municipal authority. Financial backing was derived from gifts, endowments, businesses whose employees received training from the institution, and student tuitions. These colleges were generally located in the Ohio Valley and the New England states. They were not commonly found in areas where the public was strongly willing to support public education through taxes. Their programs were nearly identical to or comparable with public community colleges. Some of the institutions, especially in New England, have survived until recently (Moore, 1966). However, several states in the Ohio Valley region have implemented extensive community college systems, and private community colleges have suffered as a result.

Technical and vocational institutes and junior colleges are another example of a class of the two-year college which has survived to the present. Traditionally, such institutions have offered little, if any, instruction in the liberal arts. Instead, their course work has been directed toward training for a career, usually leading to a specialization where the worker may be classified as a semiprofessional. Hillway (1958) ascribed the first technical and vocational junior colleges to the private two-year institutions. These colleges were spurred on by the need for even more highly trained workers in industrial settings. Examples of industrial owners and operators setting up institutes in order to provide proper training for employees in skilled positions include the Carnegie Institute of Technology in Pittsburgh, the Pratt Institute in Brooklyn, the Wentworth Institute in Boston, the Dunwoody Institute in Minneapolis, and the Lewis Institute in Chicago.

Junior colleges also helped serve to segregate races while they were being educated. Wharton (1947) stated that while the two-year concept was still being discussed in higher education circles in the North, it was being implemented in the South, where a number of two-year colleges for Negroes were established. Immediately following the Civil War, church and missionary groups representing Baptists, Methodists, Presbyterians, and Congregationalists, for the most part, began to establish post-secondary schooling for Negroes in the South. Often the Freedman's Bureau lent aid and assistance to the groups, and the colleges were staffed with volunteers and missionaries from the churches serving as sponsors. In the period from 1865-1890, the largest number of private, historically Negro institutions of higher education were founded. Although hundreds were established with titles which included the terms "normal", "college", and "university", few were able to duplicate the four-year liberal arts college. In fact, many were hard pressed to provide even two years of college work, instead being largely elementary and secondary schools. But their titles were perhaps indicative of the eventual purpose they hoped to serve. Nevertheless, in nearly all cases, even where college level work existed, larger numbers of students were enrolled in elementary and secondary classwork than in post-secondary courses (Bowles and DeCosta, 1971).

Finally, among the institutions involved in the development of junior colleges were several that could only be classed as special. Normally, these institutions were governed by a board of trustees or similar authoritative body rather than by an individual. Income was available from outside sources, often a generous benefactor or some non-denominational group or organization. Sometimes, an institution was founded in order to work out special experiments regarding the junior college. Examples of special junior colleges include Sarah Lawrence College, the Junior College of the Polish National Alliance in Pennsylvania, and the Y.M.C.A. junior colleges which were established in Ohio, Illinois, and Colorado (Eells, 1930).

Early Models of Two-Year Institutions

One of the popular methods of establishing a junior college program at the end of the 19th century was to add one or two years of collegiate instruction to the local high school program or private academy. The first recorded instance of this practice, however, took place at Newton, Maryland, in 1677. Originally, envisioned as a secondary school, it began teaching freshman level college courses as well. For those wishing to continue a college education, it was necessary to journey to St. Omer's College in Belgium (Brick, 1964). Another early example of the junior college concept was recorded by Campbell (1930), when he described an organized system of education presented to Thomas Jefferson by Dupont de Nemours in 1800. The plan consisted of a European system of education, modified to meet American educational needs. An outline for a college, as proposed in the report, closely represents what later became the junior college.

There are numerous examples of claims to what was the first junior college. Hillway (1958) cited the examples of private academies and seminaries which were offering college level work in the 19th century even before local high

schools began the practice in the 1880's and 1890's. He mentioned Bradford Junior College in Massachusetts, founded as Bradford Academy in 1803 and co-educational in its early history. In 1836, it became strictly a school for women and it began supplying higher education to women in the last quarter of the 19th century by adding the 13th and 14th grades. Thornton (1960) listed Lasell Junior College of Auburndale, Massachusetts, as another early example of a junior college program. This institution began offering two years of standard collegiate instruction as early as 1852.

As stated earlier, there were a number of Negro schools in the South during the Reconstruction period which could have been considered to be offering junior college level work. Hillway (1958) considered that these colleges were probably the first junior colleges operating in America which closely resemble the present models. However, as described above, these Negro institutions were almost undoubtedly founded with the intention of fulfilling a four-year college function. Therefore, it was chance rather than design which caused them to offer a junior college curriculum.

The Private Junior College at the Turn of the Century

Brick (1964) stated that at the turn of the century, junior colleges had little status generally, and they received little or no recognition from other educational institutions. This observation is probably true for the most part, but there were some institutions of higher education which displayed an interest in the two-year concept at this time. Such interest by the University of Chicago under the leadership of William Rainey Harper has already been discussed. Likewise, the relationship of Baylor University and Baylor College to several two-year institutions in Texas has been alluded to previously. However, it might be well to note here that Eells (1930) felt that Harper's influence was a strong factor in the Texas colleges' decision to act as they did. These institutions appear to have been the first system of correlated colleges incorporating the junior college principle.

The Texas system was established during the 1897-98 academic year. It was about this time that the Baptists in the state realized that they controlled a number of weak, competing institutions, which when combined were not worth as much as their total indebtedness. Therefore, under the leadership of the Reverend J.M. Carroll, a state-wide educational commission was authorized by the Baptist state convention. The commission adopted a plan to correlate all Baptist institutions of higher education that were located in Texas. Under this system, Baylor University at Waco served as the flagship of the affiliated system; Baylor College at Belton (a senior college) and three junior colleges, Decatur Baptist College, Rusk Baptist College, and Howard Payne College at Brownwood, Texas, completed the group. The junior colleges agreed to terminate their programs with the sophomore year and in return, their graduates were given full admission to the junior classes at Baylor University and Baylor College.

Eells (1930) also credited Harper with influencing the decapitation of several four-year institutions of higher learning in Missouri. Here, a group of weak denominational colleges were reduced to strong two-year junior colleges.

The University of Missouri served as a catalytic factor in advising and assisting some of the institutions in reducing their full college curriculums to two-year programs. A few other church-related colleges reduced their programs out of necessity, but independent of the state university's assistance.

The Missouri program originated in 1911, when the University of Missouri began cooperation with the newly developed junior colleges. The results were quite gratifying to all institutions concerned as the junior colleges increased their enrollments and the University of Missouri obtained a strong feeder system. The junior colleges remained in private hands, their contact with the public university limited to accreditation of their transfer programs by the senior institution.

Altman (1970) implied that some of the influence exerted by Harper and the University of Chicago upon the denominational colleges of Texas and Missouri was due to a common religious factor. The colleges which reduced their programs were Baptist institutions. Likewise, Harper, John D. Rockefeller, T.W. Goodspeed, and many others who were instrumental in developing the University of Chicago were Baptists. Indeed, the University itself was an outgrowth of pressures placed on Rockefeller by the American Baptist Education Society. Originally, a Baptist institution called the University of Chicago had operated for a time, but insufficient funds forced its failure in 1886. The Society then entreated Mr. Rockefeller to fund a successor institution.

The organization of junior colleges was progressing in other states at the turn of the century also. A case in point is Kentucky, where Stanley (1974) has said the growth of junior colleges paralleled national developments from 1903. The year is significant because it is generally accepted as being the date of establishment of the first junior college in Kentucky.

The institution generally regarded as being the oldest two-year college in the state was Hamilton College, a private women's institution organized at Lexington, Kentucky. Originally founded on a proprietary basis as Hocker Female College in 1869, it became a semi-public college in 1877 when sold to a stock company. The name was changed to Hamilton College in honor of William Hamilton, who had subscribed $10,000 worth of stock.

In 1901, Kentucky University, later to become Transylvania University, obtained control of Hamilton and announced its intention of merging the two institutions. There was a protest by supporters of the women's college and the plan was put off for a time. Meanwhile, Mrs. Luella W. St. Clair was named President of Hamilton College in March, 1903. Under her leadership, the institution was reorganized into a two-year college, generally recognized as the first in Kentucky. Its curriculum was strengthened and standardized, and its graduates were allowed to transfer to Kentucky University. Within three years of the change, Hamilton's enrollment nearly doubled.

Mrs. St. Clair resigned her post in November, 1907, but Hamilton Junior College prospered until the mid-1920's. Then financial difficulties began to endanger its accreditation. In 1932, it was completely merged with Transylvania University (Stanley, 1974).

Stanley (1974) suggested that Mrs. St. Clair's strong support of the two-year college concept was developed through the influence of R. H. Jesse, then President of the University of Missouri and a close personal friend of William Rainey Harper. Before coming to Hamilton College, Mrs. St. Clair had been President of Christian College, a four-year women's institution in Columbia, Missouri, the location of President Jesse's university. When she resigned from Hamilton in 1907, Mrs. St. Clair returned to Christian College and converted it to a junior college role. It would appear that if Stanley's premise concerning Mrs. St. Clair is correct, then Harper's influence in the reduction of weak four-year colleges to two-year institutions extended not only to Texas and Missouri, but indirectly to Kentucky, as well.

Recently, some evidence has been presented to suggest that Hamilton may not have been the first junior college in the state of Kentucky. Sprague and Burnett (n.d.) have suggested that the Ohio Valley Association of Baptists established the first two-year institution in Kentucky in 1895 at Sturgis, in Union County, near the Ohio River. Ohio Valley College, as it was called, was never designated as a junior college, and it is not mentioned in any literature dealing with the two-year college in Kentucky. However, the institution did offer course work for a two-year and one-year program, as well as several baccalaureate degree programs.

The states of development for Ohio Valley College were similar to the history of other junior colleges begun in the 19th century. The college was organized as the Sturgis Male and Female Institute in 1895, and its name was changed to the Ohio Valley Baptist College in 1898. Class work was discontinued from 1902-1905, but the President's office remained open. Classes were scheduled again on a regular basis for the 1905-1906 academic year and continued to be taught until the 1909-1910 academic year. By then, financial problems had become overpowering and in 1910 the college closed permanently and its resources disposed of (Sprague and Burnett, n.d.).

Thus, at the turn of the century, the private junior college was an uncertain venture. Some two-year colleges became successful contributors to the process of higher education. A few of the colleges, such as Decatur Baptist College, endured the test of time by lasting into the second half of the present century. Many more, such as Hamilton College, survived for a moderate length of time before succumbing to financial or other pressures. Others, such as the Ohio Valley College, existed as nebulous entities, perhaps offering a two-year program one year and a four-year or even one-year program the next, as finances and enrollments dictated. Although many of the early junior colleges existed in limbo between the secondary schools and higher education, their perserverance and tenacity in offering a two-year curriculum, even though often doomed to failure, helped to lay a solid foundation for the growth not only of the private junior college, but also for the flourishing community college systems of today.

Development of the Private Junior College Through The Middle Years

Campbell (1930) noted that the establishment of public junior colleges began in the Middle West and the Far West and then spread eastward. By the

time of the First World War, however, the two-year concept was widespread and was even adopting modified formats. New York state had a number of private girls' junior colleges, many of which were outgrowths of academies. In 1917, the Texas legislature recognized the private junior colleges of that state by accepting their course credits for teacher certification. This action greatly increased the prestige and usefulness of these institutions.

But while Texas was a pioneer in junior college education, it also sent a large number of junior colleges to their graves. In many instances, the two-year institutions sprang up where there was little call for their services. Unwise denominational rivalry was at fault in some instances as several institutions sprang up in locations barely able to support one college. With 10 years after World War I, at least 20 private junior colleges in Texas succumbed due to inadequate funds and low enrollments (Eells, 1930).

While Texas had denominational rivalry, Utah witnessed cooperation. Westminster College at Salt Lake City was controlled by six cooperating Protestant church groups. Eells (1930) noted that the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter Day Saints offered the only other junior college programs in the state through four institutions.

Eells (1930) also pointed out that by 1930, the proposal of relegating freshman and sophmore work to separate junior colleges and maintaining the university campus only for senior level work was not only alive and well on both the East and West coasts, but might also be found in the heart of the Deep South. Mississippi boasted several strong private junior colleges for women. One of the best was a Methodist institution, Whitworth Junior College, which by the late 1920's affiliated itself with a Methodist four-year college, Millsaps, to form the "Millsaps-Whitworth Collegiate System." No women boarding students were allowed on the Millsaps campus below the junior-level, although day students could attend classes there.

Another southern state, Virginia, had a dozen private junior colleges by 1930. They were denominational for the most part, and most had been founded as institutions in the years following the Civil War. All but one of the colleges were for women.

By the mid-1920's, some of the private junior colleges had become quite sound financially as well as educationally. An example was National Park Seminar, near the District of Columbia. Its physical plant was valued at $6 million in 1920 and its campus of 300 acres consisted of lawns, forests, and streams. The institution also possessed one of the best junior college libraries, which included a 20,000 volume special collection of first editions and autographed copies (Eells, 1930).

Hillway (1958) called the years from 1920 to the end of World War II a period of diversification for the junior college. Its numbers increased even more rapidly than in the period 1900-1919. Also, the movement was marked by two new characteristics. First, publicly supported junior colleges took a commanding lead in student enrollment, probably because of economics. Second, many of the institutions began specializing in vocational and adult education. Some of the colleges had already been in existence under other names as business or trade schools, but they began to assume new functions and took on

academic respectability by calling themselves junior colleges and requiring prospective students to complete the 12th grade.

Brick (1964) felt the quarter century from 1920-1945 saw a trend among both public and private junior colleges to offer education in vocational and semi-professional areas for those students who would terminate after two years of college education. Thornton (1960) agreed that while many institutions maintained their university preparation programs during this time period, there was a shift to begin terminal programs in occupational education.

Thornton (1960) also said that with the advent of World War II, junior colleges became involved in community-based education to answer war-time needs and because of dropping enrollments. Brick (1964) concurred that community service by the junior college was a recent phenomenon. He cited a series of catastrophic events—the Great Depression, World War II, and America's assumption of world leadership—as agents which changed the character of the two-year institution, both public and private, and molded it into an educational instrument more suitable to society's needs.

Current Problems and the Future of the Private Two-Year Junior College

Private junior colleges of today are predominantly located east of the Mississippi River. Connor (1971) found the largest number to be in the Northeast, where 70 institutions were in operation at the start of the 1970's. At the same time, the Southeast could boast 53 junior colleges, most of them denominational in nature.

Garrison (n.d.) has said the quality of course offerings for these junior colleges ranges from superb to marginal or worse. Each year there are two-year colleges forced to close because of financial problems. Others, perhaps seeking greater status or hoping to attract a larger student body, attempt to make the conversion to a four-year institution. But Garrison felt that the best junior colleges should not only survive but flourish because they offer unique, specialized, innovative programs to carefully selected students.

The growth of public community colleges across the nation has had the most profound effect on the private junior colleges in recent years. The community colleges, because of their public funding, are often able to offer a broader range of courses at less expense to students than their private counterparts.

Monroe (1974) noted that the big growth in community colleges came during the Depression, in which the number of junior colleges grew from 403 in 1924 to 584 in 1945. The next big leap was in the post-World War II period, especially after 1960. Monroe said the *Junior College Directory* listed 678 colleges in 1961, and 405 were publicly supported. By 1970, there were over 1000 two-year institutions and 850 were public community colleges.

In the early years of the movement, the private junior colleges outnumbered the public community colleges. In 1915-1916, there were 74 two-year colleges, 55 of which were private and only 19 were public. In 1948, the public institutions outnumbered the private junior colleges for the first time, although in number of students enrolled, the community colleges had usurped

the lead long before. By 1960, there were 390 public institutions and 273 private colleges. The community colleges had over 87 percent of the total number of students enrolled in two-year colleges (Monroe, 1974).

Another major problem facing the private junior college today is financing. While this has always been a problem in education, it is especially critical in the private sector because of rising costs and a sluggish national economy. Witter (1973) has suggested that besides the traditional student tuition and fees, income from auxiliary enterprises and endowments, a major source of income for the colleges should be private gifts and grants. An increasing amount of support for two-year colleges has been received in recent years from private sources; however, the largest portion of this has gone to the public junior and community colleges.

Nearly all institutions have some form of an annual fund, which is usually associated with an annual campaign to secure gifts from alumni. Witter (1973) has said that such a fund should be expanded to include gifts from parents, trustees, the local community, non-alumni, and any other such sources. He also recommended increasing alumni donations by increasing the loyalty of the junior college graduate to the two-year institution. Too many alumni of the junior college view the institution as simply a place to pass through on the way to the four-year college.

Faculty in a private junior college is usually small, typically numbering 10 to 60 persons. The average faculty member is between 30 and 50 years of age and holds the Master's degree in his specialty. Many begin their teaching careers in public school systems before transferring to the junior college level. Generally, they have had little previous experience with the junior college concept. Salaries tend to lag behind comparable job levels at four-year institutions (Mayhew, 1973).

Garrison (n.d.) has taken a rather harsh view of junior college faculty. He accused the administration of paternalism and suggested that many faculty members are merely timeservers. Such accusations may be more true in private junior colleges because the lower salaries and benefits they tend to offer would attract the less qualified. Conversely, because of the traditionally high academic standards of many private institutions, the faculty might be expected to be of top-notch quality.

Private junior colleges in 1976 offer course work which still closely parallels that of the senior colleges and universities to which their graduates often transfer. Schulte (1971) attributed this to the requirements imposed on junior colleges by the senior institutions. Today, four-year colleges and universities are beginning to liberalize their policies in regard to accepting junior college credits for course work. In some instances terminal course work has even been accepted as transfer credit for pre-professional courses.

The private junior college of today still closely resembles its predecessors of the turn of the century. It continues to be residential in nature and to cost more to attend than its public counterpart. The curriculum steadfastly maintains a strong liberal arts flavor and transfer programs to senior institutions are emphasized (Harper, 1971). Burnett (1976) commented that deciding whether or not to shift from the traditional law of liberal arts to vocational oriented

programs is becoming a major curricular problem for many private junior colleges.

Mayhew (1973) thought that the states should develop programs of financial support for the private two-year college. Though the number of these institutions is declining, they still provide needed educational services. Garrison (n.d.) has praised the potential of the private junior college, arguing that since it is not restricted to serving the needs of the surrounding community, it may develop its own character and uniqueness.

The future is still open to the private junior college. It has suffered hard times, but there is apparently still a market for its services, especially among the middle class. The institutions must be willing to adapt to changing educational demands and circumstances. But the strong institutions already have demonstrated what they are capable of doing with limited resources. With sound management and strong programs, a place for the private junior college in American higher education seems assured.

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THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE AS AN EXPORT PRODUCT

Zenaida L. Caintic

National development is a concern and an aspiration of the leaders of most nations of the world. Among the national goals (Fisher, 1962) are those for the individual, science, defense, culture, the economy, governmental organization, urban society, farm policy, human needs, and foreign relations. In all of these aspects, education plays an important part. Technology, for example, can neither be sustained nor fully utilized without large numbers of men and women prepared to understand and operate the devices now available, to adapt them to new uses, to design and build the instruments needed but not yet available, and to speed the flow of knowledge and apply it to specific problems.

Education, A Force in National Development

Education is an investment in human resources development which should take an important place in the affairs of all nations, young or mature, free or totalitarian. It is believed that the future is directly dependent on the investment made in generally educating the total populace and in educating especially the gifted for their leadership contributions. Societies which invest more intelligently in human development tend to grow, advance, and survive. Hanna (1962) pointed out that the relatively strong position of the United States in the world today is a direct outcome of over 100 years of investment in a free and universal public school system. Jacoby (1962), in supporting his statement that education is the most important factor in eliminating the gap between economic performance and potential, stated that the American educational system, broadly conceived—from the grade schools through the graduate schools and from the formal classroom through adult classes and the communications media — must educate Americans better than it has in the past in the principles, attitudes, and requirements of an efficient, free economy functioning in a political democracy.

Education, therefore, enables us to develop our individual potential to the extent that we can contribute to the welfare of the rest of the world.

Community College, A Part of That Force

Higher education in the United States has developed a variety of forms—among them, the liberal arts college, the state university, the school of

technology, and the junior or community college. The community college has become the fastest expanding segment of public education. It has graduated thousands of men and women who comprise the manpower mix (vocational and technical) and who are suited to handle current development projects and act as catalysts for improvement and change.

Burnett (1976) defined a junior college, in a generic sense, as including all organized patterns of learning experiences on a two-year basis (freshman and sophomore years) beyond high school which are accredited by one of the six regional accrediting associations in the United States. Included in this broad term are many types of junior colleges: church-related, private, public, federal, proprietary, community, and county.

Burnett (1976) further noted that there were a few private and church-related junior colleges in the 19th century, although the first public junior college was started in 1902, in Joliet, Illinois, through the influence of William Rainey Harper, the first president of the University of Chicago. Monroe (1972) credited Alexis F. Lange, dean of the School of Education of the University of California from 1906 to 1924, as probably being the single most important person in giving direction and impetus to the growth of junior college movement before 1910. Since then the junior college has had a phenomenal growth all over the 50 states, and the country still needs 230 to 280 new community colleges by 1980 (Medsker and Tillery, 1971).

The two-year college has placed education within the financial and commuting reach of thousands of students who might have otherwise been denied post-high school training (Landrith, 1971). Also, the community college is the best instrument for realizing the dream of universal post-secondary education. The goal to maximize educational opportunities for all, the rich and the poor, the young and the old, is manifested in the development of the public community college (Monroe, 1972).

Kinds of Programs

Fields (1962) described the comprehensive community college as having the following pattern of programs:

1. One-year and two-year terminal programs in the technical and semi-professional areas such as data-processing technician, technical illustrator, soils technician, nursing, and dental technology
2. General education
3. Liberal arts for those who plan to transfer to a four-year institution
4. Developmental, which not only includes such remedial areas as reading skills, study skills, and writing skills, but also pre-college freshman college courses in chemistry, mathematics, and physics for those who want to enroll in programs which require one or more high school units in a particular content area
5. Student services which include counseling, testing, orientation, and extra-class activities
6. Community services which include dozens of short-term workshops, seminars, and institutes involving citizens in the community in the gamut of such programs.

In summary, Kelley and Wilbur (1970) commented:

1. The comprehensive community college attempts to relate its programs and services to the general community as well as to high schools and senior institutions.

2. It provides a direct line of communication between the institution and the people.

3. It is a democratic institution designed to provide post-high school education at low cost and with easy accessibility to all citizens of the nation who need and can profit from the experience.

4. It functions under various forms of organization and governance, depending largely upon its basic form of control and finance.

5. Through the process of accreditation by special and regional groups, its courses and students are accepted by the majority of senior institutions and by the general public; and the accreditation process assures some concentrated effort toward its continual improvement and expansion.

This unique institution has been so successful and apparently is in its golden age in the United States.

This paper attempts to establish the rationale for using the model of the American community college in other cultures. It specifically attempts to determine the extent to which this idea can be adapted from the United States and developed in other cultures. It further attempts to emphasize that the concept of the community college must fit into a particular culture where people will accept and use it.

Need for Community Colleges

Trained manpower is in acute demand to match the pace of accelerating national development programs in most of the nations, particularly the developing ones.

Singer (1969) pointed out that two-year college skills mostly needed and in short supply in the developing world include: automobile and diesel mechanization, farm machinery management, machinery and equipment maintenance and repair, secretarial and business, data processing, engineering technology, medical laboratory technology, physics and chemistry laboratory technology, x-ray technology, fire science, recreation and physical education, and community service.

Shannon (1969) similarly indicated some areas of interest some countries would like to develop:

Greece: programs to train personnel for the tourist business and health education

Iran: engineering technology, women's education, teacher training, communications, and health education

Tunisia: teacher education and business-related curriculum

Ceylon: teacher training, health education, and business programs

India: establish demonstration colleges, teacher training, counseling, and cooperative education

Indonesia: personnel for tourist industry, health education, mineral resource development, teacher education, agricultural production, and food distribution

Thailand: nurse education, dental technician preparation, teacher training, agriculture and food distribution

Australia: library-aide programs, general education, teacher and administrator preparation programs, adult education and community services.

Because of the aforementioned needs, Singer (1969) proposed that the time had come for many American junior colleges to make plans to increase their involvement in international programs, particularly in the developing countries of Asia, Africa, and Latin America. A greater commitment of time, energy, and resources would pay major dividends both for the less-developed nations with which they can work and for many colleges participating in the plan.

To accomplish this purpose, the International Education Act sought to strengthen and develop American educational institutions by providing the resource base of talent and knowledge for efforts abroad and for public enlightenment at home (*Congressional Record*, October 13, 1966, p. 25496). However, it is not an overseas assistance program; therefore, the junior colleges need to consider other methods which would assist host countries and further the concept of the junior college.

In 1970, 45 participants from 18 countries met in Honolulu for the First International Assembly on Manpower Development sponsored by the American Association of Junior Colleges. Yarrington (1970) reported that middle-level manpower development was identified as a challenge in each country, no matter what level of technology had been developed.

The administrators who participated in these sessions came from Australia, Canada, Ceylon, Republic of China, Hong Kong, India, Indonesia, Iran, Japan, Korea, Lebanon, Pakistan, Philippines, Samoa, Singapore, Thailand, United States of America, and Vietnam.

In this meeting it was understood that while the American junior college might provide some ideas for manpower development in other countries, ideas could also be found in the educational systems of these countries.

Johnson (1961) posed the important question when he asked whether or not the junior college was useful to other countries.

The idea, indeed, is exportable considering that the goals of the two-year college—vocational education, preparation for advanced work, general education, guidance and community service—are universal in nature.

The concept of the multipurpose junior college is truly one of the American ways of participating in the fact of international life today. American society must understand that common sense and common survival dictate common action to solve common problems (Reich, 1974). This response is also a gesture of the capacity for commitment of the American people and the generous hospitality and the willingness to help which are generally acknowledged throughout the world.

Australia

Education in Australia, like the United States, is the prerogative of state governments. The federal government has a limited financial role in education. In January, 1974, the federal government assumed complete financial responsibility for tertiary education, but legislative authority for all education resides primarily with the states (Tomlinson, 1976).

In 1965 the Martin Report recommended that education be available to all citizens according to their inclination and capacity and suggested that this view served the needs of both individuals and the community. In Tasmania the first entirely new physical plant was started in July, 1967, by the state, the commonwealth government, and an American advisory team under Professor James D. MacConnell. The new college in Tasmania appears to correspond most closely to the community college in the United States (Hall, 1970).

Denison (1974) summarized the various kinds of tertiary educational institutions in Australia which provided background knowledge to the understanding of higher education in that country. Tertiary education is composed of the universities, the technical colleges, adult and continuing education and senior matriculation colleges. Community colleges have not been provided in the past in post-secondary education in this country.

Tomlinson (1976) wrote that community colleges are a very recent innovation in Australia and are quite different in purpose from similar institutions in the United States. In fact, community colleges are operating in only two regions: the Northern Territory and South Australia.

Darwin is the major city in the Northern Territory. The Darwin Community College was established in 1974 to provide post-secondary education for the Darwin community, which is remote from other major population centers and has a population which is too small to support post-secondary and tertiary education on the model of other Australian cities. The Darwin Community College provides the following courses:

Business Education: typing and shorthand, office methods, secretarial practice, commercial and business methods and management, computer studies and data processing, professional training at tertiary level in accounting, and commerce and economics.

Trade training: apprenticeship courses in the wood trades, plumbing and sheetmetal work, surface finishing, refrigeration and air-conditioning, electrical trades, fitting and machining, the automotive trades, building, welding, electronic trades, hairdressing.

Continuing community education: general education courses in creative arts, crafts, foreign languages, secondary education to matriculation level, and English as a foreign language.

Tertiary education at the degree and diploma level: The only program provided by the college at this level is in teacher training. All other degree and diploma courses are those available to students residing in the Northern Territory provided by institutions such as the University of Queensland and the Western Australian Institute of Technology offering external studies.

Community colleges in South Australia are being developed in metropolitan and rural regional centers. They provide for adult education and technical training. Norman (1973) summarized the South Australian approach to community colleges. The Karmel Committee (1969-1971) investigating education in South Australia made a detailed study of the provision and needs of further education: the post-secondary, non-tertiary level of education. As a result of the study, the Department of Further Education was established to involve in all aspects of post-secondary, non-tertiary education: not only with those courses leading to a post-secondary qualification, general interest courses, adult trade courses and cultural activities, but also in the increasingly vital areas of retraining due to redundancy or technological change. It is continuing to expand and modify its integrated network of regional administrative facilities in order to meet community needs.

The Department has 15 institutions placed throughout the country areas of South Australia: Colleges (Further Education and Technical) and Further Education Centres.

The Colleges are centered in the larger provincial industrial cities: Mount Gambier, Whyalla, Port Augusta and Port Pirie. These colleges are similar to the Further Education Centres in that they offer a wide variety of courses and activities in which the community can become involved, but, in addition, they are provided with accommodations, equipment, and full-time staff for the basic and advanced training of apprentices and tradesmen.

Among the Southeast College of Further Education (Mount Gambier's) adult education activities are as follows:

Technician: Commerce certificate.
Department Certificates: child care; forestry technology, rural studies, supervision, welding.
External certificates: Institute of Affiliate Accountants.
Other vocational classes: applied electricity; boiler attendants; coastal navigation; retail salesmanship.
General studies: matriculation and leaving English; shorthand; typing; migrant English; conversational German and Japanese.
Art and craft: pottery; painting; cookery; dressmaking; woodcarving; plastics.
Week-end schools: landscape painting; drama for producers; spinning and weaving; speed reading.

With the development of community colleges in two regions in Australia, many young Australians are able to reach their potential whereas previously this additional education had not been possible.

Canada

Canada, like other countries, needed a more adequately trained labor force immediately following World War II. In 1960 the Government of Canada passed the Technical and Vocational Training Assistance Act, which gave a powerful thrust to the expansion of technical training. By the mid-sixties, the

number of post-secondary, non-degree granting institutions had increased dramatically.

Campbell (1971) wrote:

> Canadians found merit in the two-year college movement Americans had invented, and borrowed from it. British Columbia and Alberta lifted the notion of a comprehensive college system practically intact from the United States. After studying the American and other patterns, Ontario initiated a college system substantially different from the American Junior College model. It was designed to provide technical and career training, it was specifically constructed not to become a feeder for universities. The pattern initiated in Quebec was one of the most innovative on the North American continent. In formulating their scheme, Quebec officials examined intensively the American college system, British technological schools, and various other institutions in Europe. What was finally settled upon was a structure tightly integrated into the entire educational enterprise of that province (p. 78).

The *Directory of Junior and Community Colleges* (1975) listed 10 junior and community colleges in Canada, the oldest being Mount Royal College in Calgary, Alberta, found in 1910. Hall (1970), however, stated that it was in 1957 when the first junior college opened its doors in Lethbridge, Alberta. Small (1972) described the development of Alberta's public two-year college system and evaluated the various methods for coordination which have been used. British Columbia (1962) was the second province to develop junior colleges.

Junior and community colleges have become very important in the educational system of Canada; consequently, conferences on the topic are held from time to time. One conference is the Annual International Institute on the Community Colleges held in Sarnia, Ontario, on June 10-13, 1974. Delgrosso and Colford (1975) edited the conference papers which dealt with many topics of current interest to community college educators in Canada and the United States. Subjects discussed included: performance-based individualized, self-paced, and personalized systems of instruction; institutional goals; systems approaches to education; the integration of community colleges; public libraries, and educational media to form colleges-without-walls; community colleges developed in Saskatchewan, British Columbia, Newfoundland, New Jersey and Illinois; community college staff development, outreach programs for disadvantaged adults; community-based education; collective bargaining; community college internship programs, humanistic education; students' perceptions of their community college experiences, and the development of educational information systems.

Ceylon

In 1966, Higher Education Act No. 20 was passed by the parliament of Ceylon which gave legal status to the development of junior university colleges. This was the result of the leadership of I.M.R.A. Iriyagolla, the Minister of Education, who was aided by several Fulbright scholars who were knowledgeable about junior college education (Shannon, 1969).

Kintzer (1970) reported that six institutions resembling American community and junior colleges were established in 1969 to fill Ceylon's manpower

needs not met by her universities, technical colleges, and teachers' colleges. They are the newest and most dynamic segment of Ceylon's complex educational enterprise. The junior university college aims included imparting essential knowledge, supplying vocational skills, and encouraging the intellectual enrichment of citizens. Two-year diploma programs included traditional academics as well as programs for fitting manpower shortages in crucial industries.

Hall (1970) stated that unlike the junior colleges in the United States and Canada, the junior university colleges were not to be open-door colleges. There were several hundred thousand qualified applicants and it would have been impossible to provide places for them. Admission was limited to applicants with qualifications almost similar to those entering the universities.

The first five junior colleges were located in Dohiwala, Kegalle, Galle, Palaly, and Kuliyapitiya. A sixth was established for women at the Uyanwatta Teachers' Training College at Polgolla.

Among the programs offered are: personnel management, librarianship, journalism, English, banking practices, agriculture, bookkeeping, and purchase and supply.

Both Shannon (1969) and Kintzer (1969) predicted a good future for the Ceylon junior university colleges in that they would bring lasting benefits to the nation and be a model which other Asian nations could emulate.

Dominican Republic

The *Community, Junior, and Technical College Directory* (1976) listed one junior college, the Instituto de Estudios Superiores at Santo Domingo established in 1965. Green and Cavallo (1970) believed that this resulted from the support of the Accion Pro-Educacion y Cultura (Action Pro Education and Culture, A.P.E.C.) which recognized that the business and industrial community needed technically trained administrators, accountants, and executive secretaries and, accordingly, there should be a college-level institution to provide this training.

When the A. P. E. C. acted, it sought the advisorship of Hamden Forkner, Professor Emeritus of Columbia University. He was both an authority in business education in California early in his career and a leader in the junior college movement.

The preparatory program started September 27, 1965, with 110 students. The Ford Foundation and the USAID made arrangements with Bryant College in Providence, Rhode Island, to send technical advisers to help the college organize its administration, accounting, and secretarial courses which were to start in February, 1966. In about a six months' period the college had grown from a plan on paper to a student body of approximately 400 students. Both Dr. Forkner and the college technicians found it necessary to teach classes in addition to their regular task of training local staff.

The curriculum was designed to tailor the business education and business administration programs of United States junior colleges to meet the special

conditions of the Dominican business community. The college strictly limited its program to the terminal business courses but planned to add to these.

Most of the graduates have found ready employment. For those who decide to continue their studies and take advanced courses, the National University recognizes the courses of the junior college.

Because the junior college indicated a significant contribution to the country, in 1968 the Dominican government granted the college full legal recognition with the right to grant two-year college degrees.

Great Britain

In 1944, the Education Act in Britain called for the establishment of country colleges following the pattern of the American junior colleges to provide for the increased educational needs anticipated at the end of World War II. Although these first community colleges were never built, from the Education Act came a series of institutions that, through the years, have come close to the community college concept (Hall, 1970).

The Industrial Act of 1964 required each industry to provide the necessary training to ensure future employment needs. The technical colleges have three dominant characteristics which are very much like American counterparts: a wide range of programs, a link between employer and institution, and a wide range of offerings from remedial education to university-level work.

Eisenhauer (1970) wrote that there are no multipurpose community colleges in Britain strictly comparable to those in the United States. What Britain does have are colleges of education which parallel and extend beyond the current range of American community/junior colleges.

The *American School and University* (1969) reported that the Anglo-American College at Alvescote, a two-year liberal and fine arts college, is considered to be the first college to tackle seriously the marriage of the American and British systems of education at pre-university level. The college combines, academically, an American junior college with, in British terms, a sixth form college. It seeks to give both American and British students a greater depth of study than they may have been accustomed to. It is welding British Advanced Level subjects for the General Certificate of Education to the courses normally required for the American Associate in Arts Degree.

Eisenhauer (1970) gave two significant differences between further education colleges in Britain and American community/junior colleges. Some of the British colleges offer work leading to a university degree or its equivalent; and a large number and bewildering variety of diplomas and certificates are available to further education students.

Bryan (1974) stated that the college of further education in Britain is an institution closely comparable to its stateside counterpart. The similarities in purposes, organization, and methods are striking, considering that each grew quite independently of the other.

Japan

Watanabe (1970a) wrote that in 1950, junior colleges started in Japan and revolutionized the entire system of traditional education. Dr. Walter C. Eells, former education officer on General MacArthur's staff in Tokyo after the War,

developed this unique institution of higher education in Japan during a period of educational reform. He has been called the "father" of the Japanese junior colleges.

Watanabe (1970b) further wrote that on June 17, 1964, the Revision Bill of the School Education Law was passed by the Forty-Sixth Session of the Japanese Diet. It recognized the junior colleges as full-fledged higher institutions of learning.

As of 1970, there were 413 junior colleges in Japan, with an enrollment of 67,841. Also, there were 46 new junior colleges being considered for accreditation. More than half of the junior colleges are women's schools and the majority are privately owned.

Junior colleges are developing throughout Japan; however, most of them are located in city districts such as Tokyo, Osaka, and Nagoya.

Curricular offerings are geared to meet the aims of revised School Education Law: to instruct and encourage intensive study in the arts and sciences on the semiprofessional level, equipping graduates with the abilities necessary for the vocational and practical way of life (Japan Ministry of Education, 1964, p. 3). Programs are terminal; however, the transfer function is present. Those junior college graduates who fulfill the necessary requirements are permitted to transfer to four-year colleges.

Walker (1970) listed some of the types of curricula offered: agriculture, aircraft engineering, brewage, business administration, child welfare, Christianity, civil engineering, design arts, electricity, general studies, industrial chemistry, printing, nursery education, welding, and wireless communications.

With the junior colleges established on a permanent basis, people involved in the junior college in Japan look forward to their promising future.

Jordan

Gillian (1969) wrote that a network of six junior colleges is the foundation of Jordan's higher education. These colleges have provided most of the teachers for the country's burgeoning school system and a large number of technically trained people for business, industry, and government. Four of the junior colleges are teacher-training institutions, two for men and two for women. One junior college specializes in agriculture and one in business administration. All are government institutions under the control of the Ministry of Education. They are primarily boarding institutions, free of charge with students living on campus in dormitories. Each college has an enrollment of about 200 students.

In spite of the tense Middle East situation, the nation's total educational system has experienced rapid growth and development.

Chile

To tie education to economic needs, Chile established junior colleges in 1959. Suggestions from a team of American educators were taken into consideration, and the Advisory Council of the University of Chile approved a document proposing the creation of regional university colleges. Between 1960

and 1965, five *colegios universitarios regionales* were established: Temuco, La Serena, Antofagasta, Talca, and Osorno.

Among the functions of the five colleges are: provision of intermediate level studies; transfer to professional university schools; general education courses; basic training in the sciences; guidance; adult education; and utilization of regional natural resources (Jacobsen, 1968).

Among the programs of professional university careers of intermediate level offered are: agricultural technician, home economist, industrial food-processing technician, and statistical administrative technician. Some of the transfer careers are: nursing, social welfare, mathematics, and fine arts.

Hall (1970) mentioned that in the master-planning of these regional colleges, the University of Chile has been actively supported by the Center for the Study of Higher Education of the University of California at Berkeley, under the guidance of Leland Medsker. The work has been done with the help of a Ford Foundation grant and has accounted for much of the philosophy and theory of the colleges.

The export idea of the junior college to a developing country is clearly seen in the junior college movement in the Republic of Chile.

Colombia

Colombia developed junior colleges to provide the necessary middle-level manpower needed to improve its economic condition. In 1964 it invited experts like B. Lamar Johnson and James F. King who conducted a study of higher education in Colombia. The study was followed by studies by Julio Bortolazzo and Otto Perez who recommended the creation of two prototype comprehensive junior colleges, or *institutos universitarios*, to open in 1968 (Jacobsen, 1970).

The first three institutos universitarios, opened in 1969, are located in Bogota, Medillin, and Santander del Sur. They were converted from existing technical institutes. Faculty members received their training at the University of California (Berkeley). Among the characteristics of the institutos universitarios are: both general education and pre-professional programs are provided; courses vary in length from a few weeks to a year; there are transfer opportunities to a four-year institution; and extension programs for people in the community are provided.

The Philippines

The Philippines had close American ties for more than three decades and within that time educational institutions patterned after American ones were established.

Eells (1951) wrote that in 1951 at least 70 institutions with the designation "junior college" were found in the Philippines. Dr. Manuel I. Carreon, then Director of Private Education, Eell's resource person, listed four of these institutions in his annual report for June, 1946, the first year following liberation from the Japanese occupation.

Most of the junior colleges offer courses for the training of teachers. Other programs are general liberal arts, commercial, secretarial and pre-professional courses.

The *Area Handbook* (1969) listed 68 two-year colleges, all of which are privately controlled.

The National Economic and Development Authority (1973) stated that, as early as 1969, the need to reexamine the educational system of the country to make it more relevant to national development goals was emphasized through the creation of the Presidential Commission to Survey Philippine Education (PCSPE). The Commission analyzed the overall performance of the educational system and identified the broad specific areas of its contribution to human resource development that may provide the basis of future manpower.

Among the purposes of the Educational Decree of 1972 was that of training the nation's manpower in the middle-level skills required for national development. One of the components of this program is the establishment and/or operation, upgrading or improvement of technical institutes, skills and training centers, and other non-formal training programs and projects for the out-of-school youth and the unemployed in collaboration with the programs of the National Manpower and Youth Council.

Exporting the American Community College

Required Pre-Conditions

Collins (1970) advocated that before introducing the community college concept to other countries, there are some required preconditions:

1) Support of the Minister of Education. Certainly, a whole level of education such as the junior college stratum could be added only if the Minister of Education gave it a whole-hearted support.
2) An oversupply of graduates from the secondary school system which the universities cannot absorb.
3) Economic potential to employ trained graduates of the junior college.

Some Problems

Watanabe (1970b) gave at least two concerns of Japanese educators in junior colleges: (1) the strengthening of their transfer programs to reach the stature of the terminal ones; and (2) the establishment of more men's industrial colleges. Presently most of the curricular offerings are directed at women students.

Campbell (1971) cited financial stress and problems concerning the students as the mounting concerns among government officials and public alike in Canada.

In relation to junior colleges, three areas of financial stress can be seen: (1) the increasing competition with other social institutions currently seeking public favor for governmental support; (2) the pressure on colleges to make more efficient use of their fiscal resources; and (3) the need for adequate financial support for the instruction of part-time students.

Some problems facing the students in the community college are: difficult learning situations, confused motivation, unsuitable programs of study, inadequate facilities, and the uncertainty of employment in the vocations in

which they are trained. For the student who wishes to attend the university, transfer is rarely automatic or simple. In those provinces where college is preparation for entrance to the university, the question of college-university articulation is almost an obsession.

Grant (1970) mentioned two handicaps based on the constitution of Canada. One is the rigidity of provincial control of education, and there are ten provinces in Canada. Another which follows from the first is the political and fiscal entanglements involved in the attempts to pour federal funds into post-secondary education. Because of these handicaps, establishing uniformity of educational opportunity throughout Canada has become very difficult.

Among the many problems in Latin America, Jacobsen (1970) identified the following: (1) a strong commitment to European-type education for the elite; (2) power struggles both in the political arena and the university structure; (3) lack of funds and lack of foresight to make the investment necessary for uncertain returns; (4) a tradition of white-collar jobs for the educated; (5) lack of properly trained professors; (6) a shortage of manpower studies; and, finally, (7) a desire to cling to the known and familiar educational structure.

Each country which adopted the American idea of the community college, in part or in whole, has its own peculiar problems. However, the financial problem seems to be the most critical in all of the countries.

Foreign Students in American Community Colleges

The presence of foreign students in American community colleges will help in the encouragement and development of community colleges in their respective countries.

Connolly (1967) gave a brief history of the foreign student movement in the United States. The Good Neighbor Policy in the late 1930's and early 1940's started the influx of foreign students in American colleges and universities. Latin-American students were encouraged by the federal government to come to study. When World War II raged and many European universities were closed, many European students enrolled in American educational institutions. Also, with the development of fast transportation facilities, liberal grants and developments, and the diversity of programs and technical skills attainable, a multitude of European, Asian, and Latin American students were attracted to the United States. The academic training obtained by foreign students during this period for the most part did not meet their respective country's needs. The countries needed technicians but few students returning from the United States possessed technical skills of any type except the professional skills in science and medicine. The desperate need for middle management and technically trained personnel of developing countries could have been minimized if students had realized the maximum potential of technical programs offered in American junior colleges.

The picture today has changed. The *Community and Junior College Journal* (1975) reported that approximately one-fourth of all foreign students

are enrolled in two-year institutions. About 50,000 foreign students were reported in over half the community junior colleges in the nation. Over 15,000 foreign students hold F-1 visas; over 11,000 are on other non-resident visas, such as those for exchange visitors under special State Department or Graduate school programs; and over 23,000 come on immigrant visas.

Nationally, foreign students constitute a little over two percent of all students in junior/community colleges. Some of them have large numbers: Miami-Dade Community College enrolls 6,534, or 20 percent of its student body; Medgar Evers College in New York, 500, or 23 percent of its student body; and Santa Monica College in California, 2,194, or 15 percent of its total. Most community/junior colleges have foreign students. The University of Kentucky Community College System had 64 foreign students as of Fall, 1975.

Conclusions and Recommendations

As seen from the foregoing, the concept of the American junior college has spread throughout the world. It is exportable. It has been adapted in whole or in part by some of the developing nations of the world. The junior colleges with their flexibility of function are being utilized to provide the middle-level manpower essential to national development.

In determining the appropriateness and usefulness of the junior college to a particular culture, the writer recommends Collins' (1969) required preconditions.

Also, it is important to remember the six dangers to be avoided in instituting junior colleges learned by countries with junior colleges (Jacobsen, 1970).

University programs for training junior college administrators must have short-term intensive programs to prepare foreign educators as administrators in junior college administration. Grants and fellowships (home country and educational foundations in the United States) must be made available to train foreign instructors and counselors in the teaching and counseling programs of the junior college. These junior college people, after finishing their training programs, should, in their respective home countries, conduct "echo" seminars on what they learned. This way fellow nationals and colleagues will be benefited; it will help create a knowledgeable and effective college staff.

Junior college educators, present and potential, can learn from one another through personnel exchanges, library materials loan programs, and international conferences. The American Association of Community and Junior Colleges must continue to awaken international interest in the two-year college. It must continue to have close communication with other countries in the world, hold and particpate in conferences like the Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) and the Conference in Grenoble, France (November 16-18, 1971) which dealt with short-cycle institutions, i.e., community colleges within the post-secondary education system.

As Shannon (1970) emphasized, there is a genuine interest in developing mutual-aid agreements among various nations. It is fitting that the United

States, the developer of the junior college movement, should lead in this cooperative venture.

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NATIVE AND TRANSFER STUDENTS: ARE MORE COMPARISONS NECESSARY?

Phoebe Smith

One of the liveliest debates in higher education today, summarized by Hills (1965), concerns the comparative advantages of a student's beginning his college career at a community college and then transferring to a four-year institution as a junior, or taking all four years of his work at the institution from which he plans to be graduated. Advocates of the community college approach cite the gradual transition to the rigors of college life, a faculty composed of full-time instructors rather than a preponderance of graduate assistants, emphasis on teaching rather than research, the possibility of greater individual attention due to a smaller student body, and economic savings as cogent reasons for a student's taking his freshman and sophomore years at the two-year institution. On the other hand, there are those who aver just as strongly that a student benefits substantially by matriculating from the beginning at the degree-granting university or college. Such advocates point to the values of avoiding the problem of transfer, a better trained and better paid faculty, a full-time guidance staff, and a livelier academic atmosphere with faculty encouraged to contribute to progress in their professional specialty.

Regardless of the argument, however, students flock to the community college in increasing numbers, not only in states such as California, where statutes decree that high school graduates in the lower two-thirds of their class must, if they enter college, attend the two-year institutions, but also in states permitting a wider latitude of choice. Many of these students transfer to the four-year programs, and a great amount of research has compared these transfer students with native students who began their work at the university or college. In fact, so much research has been done in this area that more might fall under the category of "beating a dead horse". Perhaps it would be helpful to summarize and analyze findings to date, hoping that future studies will branch out into less-thoroughly-worked fields.

Studies Before 1965

Hills (1965) surveyed the literature up to 1965 concerned with the academic performance of the junior college transfer, especially as the transfer student compared with his native student counterpart. More than 20 studies

done on this question revealed some interesting conclusions. Hills coined the phrase "transfer shock" to describe the recurring phenomenon of the lowered grade-point-average during the semester immediately following transfer. Considering the studies done from 1923 through 1964, he found 46 sets of data relevant to transfer shock; 44 sets revealed shock occurring, clearly indicating that many transfer students suffered an appreciable drop in their grade standing upon transfer. However, 38 sets of data showed subsequent recovery from "shock," or a rise in grades, the degree of recovery varying widely.

Hills also stated that in comparing transfers and natives in regard to grades in the upper division, out of 33 sets of data, 22 showed natives performing better than transfers; four showed junior college transfers with better performance than natives; and seven found no significant difference in grades. Six sets of data compared junior college transfers with transfer students from other types of institutions, with the other types out-performing the junior college students in five sets.

Twenty-one sets of data indicated that junior college transfers took longer to be graduated, or fewer were graduated, than the native student population. Hills concluded that differences existed between transfers and native students as populations regardless of the reasons for these differences. Attempts were not made in these studies to control for academic aptitude in the two groups.

Nationwide Studies

Knoell and Medsker (1965) explored the transfer and native student comparison in the first national study of the transfer student, *From Junior to Senior College*. Two validating factors for their conclusions were the large numbers involved in their samples (4,026 transfers and 3,349 natives) and the drawing of the samples from the college graduating classes of 1962. Using only persisters for comparison purposes meant that if differences occurred in considering the two groups as a whole, they would be differences among the most able students, and there would appear to be little likelihood that other groups of transfer students would compare as well with native students. Also, no time limits were imposed on the two groups since they had entered at various times, progressed at various speeds, and followed differing attendance patterns before completing degree programs. Major disadvantages of the study included the impossibility of studying matched samples from the two- and four-year institutions and lack of access to information about attrition among the native student population.

Using college transcripts and the results of biographical questionnaires, Knoell and Medsker (1965) found that:

1) Although variability was anticipated in the area of student charcteristics, little was found. As a group the community college transfers were very much like the native student population in the four-year institutions: mostly white, Protestant, of native-born parentage, and under 21 years old. Men outnumbered women in both groups, and the high school record of the women exceeded that of the men. The majority had taken the general or college preparatory course in high school, graduating in

the upper-half of their classes. Economic factors had played the major role in the decision of the transfers to attend a community college for the first two years.*

2) In working toward a degree both groups took about the same number of terms and credit hours to satisfy requirements for graduation. This finding contrasted with Hills' (1965) summary of findings indicating transfer students took longer to be graduated than natives. Conflicting evidence also appeared in subsequent studies, e.g., Trent and Medsker (1967), Birnbaum (1967), Hewitt (1972), and Walker (1970). Knoell and Medsker (1965) reported that transfer male graduates were a year older on the average than the male natives, at the time of entering the upper division.
3) Except in the teachers' colleges, native students tended to have higher scores on tests of academic aptitude than transfer students.
4) Comparing lower-division grades, transfer students had higher averages than natives, but the ratio was reversed for the upper college years. (Transfers experienced "transfer shock," although those persisting to graduation experienced steady improvement in grades after the initial drop.)
5) In the transfer group those most likely to succeed had performed well in high school and in junior college; there was less attrition among the students who had made an early decision to attend college.

Knoell and Medsker (1965) pointed out that they found vast institutional and state differences among the 43 colleges and 10 states included in the study. A student's probability of success after transfer depended heavily upon his choice of four-year institution in the particular state in which he attended junior college. An implication of this conclusion perhaps is the need for less comparative study between native and transfer students and more study directed at questioning how well an institution is achieving its stated mission.

Trent and Medsker (1967), in their study of 10,000 high school graduates, included figures showing that transfers as a whole, including those from both two- and four-year institutions, did not differ significantly from the native population in academic achievement as measured by grade-point average and persistence toward a degree. However, two-year college transfers considered separately took longer to complete requirements for a degree and withdrew after two and a half years in somewhat greater proportions, confirming the findings reviewed by Hills (1965). In studying only the situation of students who had entered college four years before, Trent and Medsker (1967) did not allow the time flexibility of the Knoell and Medsker (1965) study. Significantly, the group surveyed for the native/transfer comparison included the following proportions of each group who were still in school working towards a degree:

*Using data from PROJECT TALENT, a nationwide study of high school youth, Cooley and Becker (1966) found that in considering junior college students as a whole (including transfer and terminal students), the students tended to be more like non-college students in terms of ability, but more like college students in terms of socioeconomic factors. By studying only those transfer students who persisted to graduation, Knoell and Medsker (1965) drew on a different population from Cooley and Becker (1966).

natives, 29 percent of a total sample of 1,214; transfers from junior colleges, 46 percent of a sample of 397; transfers from extension centers, 50 percent of a sample of 113. The traditional model of attaining a bachelor's degree in four years may no longer be a proper measure of academic achievement.

In fact, Cross (1968) pointed to the inadequacy of our methods of comparing "higher education's newest student," the junior college student, with the traditional college student for whom the present system of higher education was designed. Pointing to data taken from Trent and Medsker (1967), she illustrated one of the ways this new undergraduate differs in socio-economic background as reflected in the whole atmosphere of the home. Trent and Medsker found that the parents' attitudes toward college bear a strong relationship to persistence in college. Seventy percent of the students who remained in college over the four-year period of the study had stated, as high school seniors, that their parents definitely wanted them to have a higher education. Only 48 percent of the students dropping out of school during that period felt that college was important to their parents. Cross (1968) concluded that "the great future task is to investigate the ways in which the junior college student differs in *kind*, or in pattern of abilities, rather than in degree from the traditional college student" (p. 42).

Prediction of Academic Achievement

Hoyt and Munday (1969) were interested in how well the American College Test (ACT) scores and high school grades predicted academic success in two-year colleges. Known already as the best predictor of achievement in four-year institutions, a combination of test scores and grades proved to be equally predictive at junior colleges. Interestingly, such a combination worked as well for students in terminal programs at the junior college as for those in the transfer curriculum (Munday, 1968). Transfer and terminal students appeared to be far more alike than different, although ACT composite scores were consistently slightly higher for students in the transfer program. A footnote to Munday's (1968) findings was the fact that originally two-thirds of the enrolled two-year college students indicated the intention of transferring, although only one-third did transfer. Knoell and Medsker (1965) found this same trend. Implications for counseling in the area of educational goals seem clear.

Hoyt and Munday (1969) reviewed ACT data from 85 two-year colleges and 205 four-year colleges to generate their conclusions on prediction. Also concerned with academic description of students at these colleges, they found, as expected, that two-year college freshmen as a group were less able academically than their peers at the four-year institutions. Test scores and high school grades both suggested this, although there was considerable overlap of students at both types of schools. Many two-year students had higher aptitude than the average four-year college student; conversely, many four-year students had lower aptitude than the average two-year student. There was a much greater spread in aptitude at the community/junior colleges, reflecting the diversity resulting from open-door admissions policies and basic philosophical differences between the two types of institution. Hoyt and Munday (1969) emphasized the importance of two-year colleges not imitating four-year in-

stitutions, given the differences in students and objectives. They contrasted the primary goal of intellectual development typical of a traditional four-year college with the broad range of objectives of a community college, which would no doubt include intellectual dimensions but would also focus on vocational skills and other areas of personal development. However, in the area of academic success, the conclusion was clear that success could be just as accurately predicted at both two- and four-year institutions using ACT test scores and high school grades.

Studies in Individual States

Birnbaum (1967) compared junior college transfers at the City College of the City University of New York with other transfer students from the School of General Studies, and C.C.N.Y. native students. Using as the measure of success, graduation *or* continuing attendance after three years with a grade point average of "C" of better, he found junior college transfers as successful as students in the other two groups. He noted that the two-year transfers took longer to be graduated than the natives and were as successful as the natives in every degree area except engineering.

Using a matched-pair design to compare the junior-year grades of native and transfer students of similar academic backgrounds, Hartmann and Caple (1969) found that at the University of Missouri there was a significant difference in favor of the native student population for both semesters. One fascinating aspect of their findings was that the transfers from private junior colleges caused the variance in pattern; transfers from metropolitan public and rural public community colleges considered alone showed no significant differences in academic achievement from their native student counterparts. The small number of institutions considered in this study indicates the need for further research in this area to verify this finding.

Britton (1969) compared the incidence of "transfer shock" among urban community college students transferring to different types of four-year institutions in Missouri. He expected a greater drop in grade-point average for those who transfered to the main branch of the University of Missouri at Columbia, compared to those who chose to attend two local urban area campuses of the University at Kansas City and St. Louis. Data showed, however, that "transfer shock" was equally intense at all three campuses, and Britton concluded that special orientation should inform prospective transfer students that this drop in GPA is a normal occurrence.

Another Missouri study conducted by Mann (1969) employed a matched-pair design to compare two transfer groups—from junior colleges and from other four-year institutions—to the University of Missouri at Columbia. Matched on School and College Abilities Test scores (SCAT), academic division entered, and sex, the two groups showed no significant difference in presence and amount of "transfer shock." Mann suggested that any differences might reflect insititutional grading practices more than any other variable. The commonly held belief that junior college transfers perform less well academically than four-year college transfers did not seem to hold up when the variable of ability was partialed out in the 30 matched pairs.

Elton (1969) investigated the relationship between personality and ability variables as measured by the Omnibus Personality Inventory and ACT scores, and educational outcomes of students who matriculated at Ashland Community College in Kentucky. Results indicated that personality characteristics did not significantly predict a student's continuation into a four-year program. However, for females a high ACT mathematics score significantly differentiated girls who were attending a four-year institution two years after entering the community college as freshmen; for males, a high ACT social studies score was significant in the same way.

Does a difference in academic performance exist between transfer and native students that can be attributed to the institution and the quality of its programs where these students completed their first two years of college work? This concern underlies much of the research in this area. Sutton (1970) attempted to compare 280 students at the University of Kentucky using a matched-pair design giving preference to a close match on the variable of high school grades and ACT scores, shown to be the best predictor of college performance (Munday, 1967). He found that at any given ability level, the community college transfer was able to earn grades in the upper division equal to those of his matchmate.

Melnick (1970) compared the fourth-year academic performance of three groups of students at Hofstra University in Hempstead, N.Y.: transfers from two-year institutions, transfers from four-year colleges, and a sample of Hofstra native students. Consistent with the literature, he found that the performance of transfers prior to transfer and the two-year cumulative grade-point averages of natives were almost the same, but that in both the third and fourth year the grades of transfers from two-year colleges were significantly lower than the other two groups. He also found that a higher percentage of four-year college transfers and natives tended to be graduated than two-year transfers. No allowance was made for two-year transfers who might persist to graduation beyond the traditional four-year time limit.

Hewitt (1972) approached this problem in studying the relative "efficiency" of two-year college transfer and native students in earning bachelor degrees. Efficiency was measured in length of time in years, total number of terms, and total number of credits registered and paid for. Less efficiency was considered undesirable in terms of being costly to students, parents, and taxpayers. Results of this study at Western Michigan University showed that transfers take more time in years, terms, and credits to complete degree requirements than natives, resulting in additional living costs as well as delayed entry into full-time employment. Hewitt found no significant difference between the two groups in grade-point average required for graduation and suggested that further analysis is needed at the program or curriculum level, a field seemingly ripe for research.

Florida presents an interesting situation for studying transfer and native students with its community college system blanketing the state and feeding by design into its upper division universities, e.g., Florida Atlantic University at Boca Raton. The University of Florida still accepts freshman and sophomore undergraduates in its university college, and admits a large body of transfers at

the junior level as well. As part of a continuing institutional study, Walker (1970) collected data for eight terms on 1,999 students admitted in 1966 to the upper division. Public junior colleges provided 46.1 percent of this junior class. His findings contained few surprises for those familiar with the literature on the transfer vs. the native student. The natives had higher Florida Twelfth Grade Test scores, made better grades in the upper division of the university, had lower attrition rates in the upper division, and progressed more rapidly toward graduation.

Webb (1971) approached the question of academic performance after transfer with a non-traditional suggestion. He referred to the fact that significant differences in grades of native and transfer students often reduce or disappear in studies that control for academic potential, as well as citing the Knoell and Medsker (1965) demonstration of significant relationships among type of four-year institution, sex, state differences, and after-transfer performance. Webb (1971) suggested that transfers' level of achievement may be determined by various characteristics acting together and that each situation pairing two schools may be unique. Studying transfer students at Georgia Institute of Technology, he considered 130 transfers for a particular feeder school, matching them for academic potential as measured by Scholastic Achievement Test (SAT) scores with native students at the institute. The study assessed the contribution of four factors—grading standards, preparation for advanced work, academic potential, and coping ability—to the academic achievement level of transfers and natives as measured by grade-point averages. The results seemed to indicate that the largest contributor to an observed decrement of 1.21 letter grades for transfer students was differential grading standards between the two- and four-year institutions. The lowest contributor was preparation for advanced work, indicating this was adequately done by the two-year college.

Following up students who transferred from Lake Land College to Eastern Illinois University, Lach (1971) found the expected evidence of transfer shock and subsequent recovery. His interest in predicting academic success of these transfer students led to the finding of junior college GPA as the best predictor of success in the upper division. ACT scores and high school grades were significant predictors of success in the transfer program at the community college level; but after two years, junior college GPA proved to be the only significant predictor of success at the university.

A study done at Florida State University investigated the alleged drop in grade-point average of transfer students and its subsequent rise or "recovery from shock." Nickens (1972) found no significant difference in two-year college transfers' first term GPA and native juniors' comparable GPA after the variance accounted for by Florida Twelfth Grade Test scores was removed. Also, the subsequent rise of transfers' grades was not found to be significantly different from the rise in native students' grades over a two-year period in the upper division when students who withdrew from school were excluded from both groups. Once again, controlling for the academic potential variable seemed to weaken the argument for a cause and effect relationship between transfer and a drop in GPA. If such a drop can be accounted for plausibly by

difference in ability, perhaps we need new terminology for the phenomenon. Nickens suggested that possibility as well as differences in grading practices among institutions as another possible explanation.

Native and community college transfer students in a professional education program at Glassboro State College in New Jersey were found to be similar in socio-economic status and in professional goals (Smith, 1973). Particular attention to whether a difference existed between the two groups in intergenerational social mobility disclosed no difference along that dimension. Striving for upward mobility through higher education was found in the same degree in both groups; a possible fruitful area for research might lie in whether students with that motivation achieve to a higher degree than students who are not socially mobile. Smith also found the expected significant difference in grade-point average for the junior year in favor of the native student group.

The CLEP General Examinations measured academic achievement of junior college transfers, four-year college transfers, and native juniors at the University of Illinois, Urbana (Wermers, 1972). Junior college transfers ranked lower than the other two groups in academic ability, socio-economic status, and scores on the CLEP exams. The academic differences seemed to be attributable to student characteristics which are correlates of academic performance at the time of freshman registration rather than to the type of institution attended for the first two years of college. With the variance caused by differing ability removed, the influence of junior colleges on academic achievement as measured in five areas by CLEP was not different from that of the university or other four-year institutions.

Research has indicated that student subcultures perceive the environment of a particular institution in different ways and that new students often overestimate the ability of the college environment to meet the wide variety of their intellectual and nonintellectual needs. Donato (1973) wished to explore the part "expectation-press incongruence" (most of the environment is inconsistent with the student's expectations) might play in the "transfer shock" encountered by junior college transfer students entering a major midwestern university. Would unrealistic expectations of university life affect first-semester achievement by these students? Using a matched-pair design with native and transfer juniors matched for sex, hours completed toward a degree, and high school rank, the study measured both groups' perceptions of the environment with the College Characteristics Index (devised by Pace and Stern, 1958). The data revealed that the overall expectations of the entering transfer students were highly incongruent with the actual press perceived by the native students. The transfers expected much more of both the intellectual and nonintellectual climates in terms of potential to meet their needs, but no correlation was found between the first-semester grade-point average of the transfers and this expectation-press incongruence. Donato also compared the transfer student group with freshmen entering the same undergraduate college only to find that the freshmen, too, had unrealistic expectations of the college environment. The junior college experience did not seem to make a difference in this respect.

Nayle (1973) compared a group of students who transferred as juniors from five private and five community colleges to Eastern Kentucky University

with a group of native students. His findings agreed with the majority of such studies, especially when the variance accounted for by differing academic ability is not removed: as a group the two-year students had higher grade-point averages during their freshman and sophomore years than the native students; in the upper division, however, the native group showed a significantly higher GPA over the transfers. One interesting finding here was that there was no significant difference in GPA between the public and private two-year college transfers.

Reverse Transfer Phenomenon

Another facet of the whole transfer versus native student question concerns students who leave the four-year institution to attend a community or junior college. Kuznik (1973) dubbed this the "reverse transfer" phenomenon and endeavored to obtain information from 315 students in Iowa who had transferred from four-year colleges to 22 two-year post-secondary institutions. The data revealed that such reverse transfer students shared very similar socio-economic backgrounds with the native two-year college students. The transfers were working at jobs more than they had before changing schools; more were married than junior college student norms; and more owned homes than normally found. Their reasons for leaving the four-year institution included the anticipation of better grades (especially true of arts and science majors) and the hope of facilitating employment (particularly cogent to those in vocational/-technical programs). In comparing their experiences with both types of institution, 61 percent of the reverse transfers were happier at the community college, citing better teaching and better counseling from instructors as primary reasons for increased satisfaction. Bear in mind that most of these students had had unsatisfactory academic experiences at colleges or universities.* The reverse transfer students had higher academic ability, as measured by ACT scores, than the average community college student.

Lee (1975) also studied the reverse transfer student and the "retread function" of the community college (perhaps an unfortunate term). Her findings agreed with Kuznik (1973) when she analyzed 459 students who transferred from five state universities to five community colleges in one year: reverse transfers had slightly higher high school averages and scores on college entrance exams than the average community college student, but were very much like the native students in most other characteristics.

Once students from the community college transfer to the university, can differences be determined between those who persist to graduation and those who withdraw before completing degree requirements? Van Hook (1974) studied 249 transfers from Kentucky community colleges to the three major

*The importance of students' setting realistic educational goals was brought out in a study done by Hecker and Lezotte (1969) in which they analyzed transfer to and from technical, associate degree, and baccalaureate degree programs within an open admissions college, Ferris State College, Big Rapids, Michigan. Finding encouraging results relative to the ultimate success of students at the junior college level, the data showed that out of a sample of 487 students 90 percent showed a grade point average of 2.00 or higher following transfer to a different program, whereas 37 percent earned such an average before changing programs. A lowering of level of educational goals seemed to lead to success following previous failure.

state universities and found a significant difference in academic performance, measured by grades, in favor of persisters, plus more likelihood for female transfers to persist than males. He also found a significant correlation between community college grades and final grades after transfer: students making high grades at the community college could expect to make high grades at the university. This confirms prior findings that junior college grades are the best predictor of upper division grades, once a student has attended two years of college.

Recent Studies

Three bodies of research compiled in 1974 contain few surprises considering the literature that has been examined so far. Sheehan and Reti (1974) found in comparing students who transferred over four academic years from Alberta community colleges to the University of Calgary with the total undergraduate population that grade differentials did exist in favor of the other undergraduates over the transfer group. A comparison of the two groups according to major areas of study revealed significantly lower course grade-point averages for transfers in all areas except the Faculty of Business, where transfer students came closest to their cohorts. The widest differential existed in the Faculty of Engineering.

Anderson and Riehl (1974) looked at the academic progress of junior college transfers, four-year college transfers, and native students at the University of Illinois, finding once again that junior college transfers consistently achieved a lower grade-point average than the other two groups in 12 subject areas studied. No attempt was made to control for pre-admission academic or non-academic variables.

Finally, the situation at the University of Washington was examined by Hodgson and Dickerson (1974), who studied the upper division academic performance of transfers from both community and four-year colleges and native students. Over a common five-year period of possible upper division attendance, natives showed a markedly higher graduation rate than either group of transfers; and cumulative upper division grade point averages were highest for natives, who significantly out-performed four-year transfers, who, in turn, out-performed two-year transfers. This study went a step further, raising the question of whether the overall group differences resulted from the clustering of students within different academic aptitude levels or from students' having begun their college careers at different types of institutions. Statistically, removing the influence of aptitude level differences resulted in little difference among the groups in overall achievement means. Therefore, aptitude scores, rather than institutional origin, proved significant in forecasting upper division achievement at the University of Washington.

An appropriate conclusion to this consideration of the transfer and native student question is the work of Van Alstyne (1974), who pointed to the fact that at that time almost half of all entering college freshmen in the United States matriculated at two-year colleges and that over half of all transfer students to four-year institutions originated at two-year institutions. She again raised the central question: Are these two-year college transfers substantially different

from nontransfers? A summary of characteristics was based on data gathered by the American Council on Education Cooperative Institutional Research Program (CIRP), which since 1965 has annually collected information, by means of questionnaires, from the entering freshman class at a sample of colleges and universities across the nation and with follow-up questionnaires at subsequent intervals. Findings included:

1) Transfers and natives were similar in demographic characteristics, except that men were more likely to transfer than women, and whites were more likely to transfer than blacks. (Both groups came from similar socio-economic backgrounds.)
2) Nontransfers had slightly better high school grades; while transfers had slightly better lower division grades.
3) Regarding sources of finance, transfers were somewhat more likely to rely on parents, spouses, earnings, and loans to finance their education, with nontransfers somewhat more likely to have received scholarships, fellowships, and grants.
4) The two groups showed similar attitudes on a variety of social and campus issues, with both groups changing over a period of years in a liberal direction.
5) A large proportion of both groups experienced some kind of delay in earning bachelor degrees. An impressive fact was that one out of five students who completed a degree within four years was a transfer student.

Van Alstyne pointed out that many students began at a public two-year institution because of financial considerations; however, hidden costs may be involved for such students. Taking longer to complete a degree (perhaps because of poor articulation or changed educational goals) and lack of access to financial aid (with limited funds, schools tend to favor native students) can result in as much as a $7,000 extra hidden cost for the transfer student, in a hypothetical case raised by this educational economist. This extra cost may be partially the student's fault, but investigation seems warranted as to how much of it constitutes penalizing transfers for *being* transfers.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Certain consistent trends emerge from an overview of the literature of the past decade concerning the community and junior college transfer compared with the native student at four-year institutions:

1) The best pre-college predictors of academic success for transfer students, as well as native students, are ACT scores and high school grades. After two years of undergraduate work, community college grades are the best predictor of success for the transfer student in the upper division.
2) Transfer students, as a group, experience an initial drop in grade-point average upon entering the four-year institution. Grades for this group generally improve during subsequent terms.

3) Transfer students have lower grade-point averages overall than native students during the last two years of college.
4) Transfer students show higher attrition rates than natives during the upper division years and, as a group, take longer to be graduated than native students.
5) There is little demographic and socio-economic variability between natives and transfers.
6) As a group, natives have higher academic ability than transfers as measured by college entrance exams and high school grades.
7) In almost all studies where the effect of differing academic ability is removed, the difference in grades between transfers and natives disappears, indicating strongly that the difference cannot be attributed to the quality of education received before transfer.

The strongest implication from these findings would seem to be a change in the direction of research in this area. Studying transfer and native students, especially in regard to academic achievement measured by grades, has reached a dead end for several reasons. First, too much has already been done, as evidenced by the selection from the literature considered here, with the same conclusions reached over and over again. Second, given the variability among states and among institutions within a particular state, one should be wary of making generalizations about two populations called "transfers" and "natives." A more appropriate approach might be to ask how effective a particular institution has been in accomplishing its goals operating within the framework of its state's system of higher education. Third, researchers have neglected the study of students who withdraw from the community college compared to students who withdraw from four-year institutions. Using personality measures and motivation scales, how do persisters differ from nonpersisters at both types of institution? Fourth, instead of *comparing* transfer and native students—a task which has been thoroughly completed—a new question needs to be asked: How well do transfer and native students perform in terms of the expectations held for them, considering their native ability? Do students who form clear and realistic academic goals early in their college career perform better than those who do not, whether in the native or transfer group?

Finally, an important question to consider, in light of the figures showing increasingly larger proportions of students starting their academic career in the community college, is whether the transfers are penalized simply for being transfers, especially in terms of taking longer to earn the baccalaureate degree. In these days of accountability, with ever increasing attention being paid to educational outcomes, one would hope to find researchers attempting studies to provide answers to these important questions involving students who transfer from one institution to another as part of the experience of higher education.

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THE STUDENT PERSONNEL PROGRAM IN THE COMMUNITY/JUNIOR COLLEGE*

Ted M. Cudnick

Although the conception of student personnel programs and various functions related to student affairs took place long ago in the history of American higher education (Cowley, 1937), its ensuing development leading to its present status was not an easy one. Complicating its growth pattern was the advent of the community/junior college concept in American higher education with its own unique needs within the student personnel area. Thus, during its developmental period, two noticeably different programs had been formed – student personnel programs for the two-year community/junior colleges and student personnel programs for the four-year colleges and universities.

That differences exist between the above cannot be argued, yet too often in practice the two-year institution program in student personnel is patterned after that in the four-year college. O'Banion (1971) mentioned discussions and doubts having been created on many community college campuses as to what place, if any, student personnel programs should have within the community college simply because of non-salient ideas that had been transplanted from the four-year university programs. He subsequently pointed out that the university philosophy of student personnel programs simply cannot respond to the needs of the community college students (O'Banion, 1973). George and George (1971) reinforced O'Banion's statement and pointed to critics' accusations of the two-year college student personnel workers' failure. The main criticism was that of complacently patterning their services after those of the four-year university, instead of formulating fresh, appropriate programs which would better meet the community college students' unique non-academic needs.

Uniqueness of Students

In order to comprehend better the need for a unique and dynamic student personnel program on the community/junior college campus, one need only examine the traits and characteristics of the two-year college student as opposed to the university student.

*The writer uses the term, "community/junior college" to apply to the community college, the public junior college, and the private junior college. Where certain developments in student personnel apply only to the public sector, he uses the term community college.

A tremendously diversified and heterogeneous student population (Medsker, 1964; Dolan, 1969; Hopkins, 1974) is universally attracted on a continual basis to the community/junior college campus, more so than any other type of post-secondary educational institution. Hopkins (1974) identified a large portion of the two-year students to be in the late 20's and 30's with some estimates identifying almost 50 percent of all community/junior college students in the United States as ranging in age from 25 to 65. The increase alone in the matriculation rates of these mature students can be staggering. Elsner (1972), in an article on married women in higher education, cited that over this past decade alone, the number of female students over 30 years of age has doubled.

The age factor alone demands special consideration in the formulation and implementation of various student programs in the community/junior college, for these students' needs and perceptions, values and aspirations vary markedly from the 18 to 22 year old students (Simmons and Kochey, 1975). Because of a general failure to respond to these differences, there has been a definite gap in the development of student personnel programs for them (Hopkins, 1974).

But age is not the sole characteristic differentiating the two-year college student from the four-year college student. In their early study Pace and Stern (1958) found that where the university student held humanitarian concerns on a high interest level, the two-year student held business and financial mattters at a more concerned level. In similar studies, Clark and Trow (1966) and Cross (1968) also supported the finding that the university-level students are more interested in humanitarian concerns, remaining current in political affairs, and aspiring to become leaders of the community in the future. The community/junior college student was found to rate these particular interests low while placing more importance of interest on such things as mechanical pursuits and athletics. Koos (1970), in comparing various personality data between the two student segments, found that the community college students scored significantly lower in the areas of autonomy and social maturity, and higher in authoritarian and convential scales than did the four-year college students.

Stark (1965) identified the further characteristics of a largely commuting student body and their relationship to the student personnel programs being offered at the community/junior college. His findings revealed that the two-year student differs from the four-year college student in areas such as exposure to parental authority, adherence to family and community expectations, lower motivation for continued attendance, high incidence of economic problems, and, therefore, a prolonged ignorance of the need for personal autonomy. Other reasons for attendance may be attributed to proximity to the campus or being employed within the neighborhood. Koos (1970) found that more two-year college students than those in the universities have poor study habits and suffer levels of disability in verbal and quantitative skills. He also found that there were more students from lower social class families in the community colleges than in the four-year universities.

George and George (1971) further defined some of the two-year student characteristics as having extremely close ties with their pre-college social lives

along with abnormal ties to their high schools and high school experiences and/or various organizations or other activities. The two-year college students were found to contribute to high attrition rates and were described as being quite discrepant between their aspirations and actual achievement level (Collins, 1967). Because of their non-campus resident situations, the community college students neither make far-reaching contacts with others on campus which would augment their interest and relationship with the college and its activities, nor do they seem conspicuously in need of any program the college offers because of the relative intangibility of such programs. For these students, a sound student personnel program needs to be continually upgraded, yet unless the program is innovative and relevant their participation will be at best segmental (Stark, 1965; Collins, 1967; Koos, 1970).

Thus, the tremendous heterogeneity of clientele in the community/junior college translates as individuals ranging from those freshly graduated from high school to senior citizens, academically deprived to socio-economically disadvantaged, occupational-terminal students to academic-transfer students, full-time veterans to part-time community employees, housewives and minority group members to drop-outs, flunk-outs, and opt-outs. Involvement in the offerings of a sound student personnel program can greatly benefit this diversified collection of individuals unique to the community/junior college; having a dynamic student personnel program that can meet the needs of the varied clientele is most crucial in fulfilling the major objectives of the community/junior college (Dolan, 1969).

Definition and Delineation

Realizing the necessity of the formulation and implementation of a unique and total student personnel program for the community/junior college, it becomes necessary to explore the various philosophies, definitions, and viewpoints of the many authorities in the student peronnel service field and to combine these various guidelines into a comprehensive, workable, appropriate model.

Feder (1958), McDaniel (1962), Monroe (1973), Crookston (1974), and Flores (1975) all agreed on defining the student personnel program as an entire assemblage of formal activities of the college that supplements academic instruction and other normal classroom functions, the goals of which are aiding the students in an individual or collective manner toward maximal development physically, socially, personally, emotionally, psychologically, and intellectually. The student personnel program complements the academic teaching function of the college via administering to the personal needs of the student through efficient and effective usage of all available resources (Shaffer, 1966).

Some of the many responsibilities assigned to the student personnel program include helping the student understand the college, aiding the college in understanding the student, and having the student understand himself (Dolan, 1969). McDaniel (1962) pointed out that another responsibility is to assist students in taking full advantage of the educational programs offered by the college. Cangemi (1975), an educational psychologist, challenges the

student personnel program to assume the responsibility of a most necessary and important goal, that of helping the students develop a significant measure of self-actualized behavior. Because there is no doubt that the student personnel program is predicated upon viewing the student as a total individual (Wrenn, 1959), the program must be responsible for developing as much potential in that total individual as possible (Cross, 1973). Part of that potential to be realized is the drive for the pursuit of truth, the need for each student to come to grips with the many questions concerning him/her – whether social, political, or philosophical (Monroe, 1973).

While considering various responsibilities of the student personnel program, the actual role and position of the program within the structure of the institution appear to be in question. Blocker and Odom (1972) went as far as advocating a central teaching function for the student personnel program in the community/junior college rather than existing merely as a supplemental, supportive role to the college's academic-instructional program. O'Banion and Thurston (1972) seemed to agree with Blocker and Odom by calling for the inclusion of the student personnel program into the instructional process as well as into the curriculum and decision-making process and other areas of the community/junior college. In studies by both McDaniel (1962) and O'Banion (1971), the function of the student personnel program was seen to shift from the regulator-role to the developer-role, which tends to add weight to the trend supporting the acceptance of the program as more than just a supplementary arrangement, secondary to the academic/instructional program.

Before any further arguments or evidence are presented regarding the need to uplift or "relocate" the student personnel program philosophically or organizationally, perhaps an actual look at the delineation of the program itself would be extremely beneficial.

From the many sources within the current literature perhaps the most outstanding and frequently cited outline of student personnel activities/functions in the community/junior college is that which was produced from the Raines-McConnell study which took place from 1963 to 1965 (Raines, 1965). The outline was reproduced by Collins (1967), Koos (1970), and Monroe (1973), who went on to explain it in depth. Taking this outline and expanding it to encompass most of the activities found to be a part of the student personnel program in the community/junior college involved the ideas and findings of the following, besides the previously mentioned works of Raines, Collins, Koos, and Monroe: Brooks and Avila (1973), Goodman, Beard, and Martin (1975), Harris (1973), Lautz (1975), O'Banion (1975), Selby (1975), and Smith (1975). It is with the collective efforts of all of the above that the following comprehensive outline of the community/junior college student personnel program can be presented.

A Comprehensive Outline of the Two-Year College Student Personnel Progam

The functions and activities of the student personnel program in the community/junior college should include:

I. Orientation Functions
   A. Dissemination of pre-college information
   B. Student recruitment
   C. Student admission
   D. New student orientation to college programs and services
   E. Career opportunity information
   F. Continual information on campus services

II. Appraisal Functions
   A. Appraisal of applicants' previous records
   B. Maintenance and appraisal of current records
   C. Preparation and dissemination of transfer information
   D. Standardized testing
      1. Aptitude
      2. Achievement
      3. Interest
      4. Basic Skills
      5. Diagnostic
      6. Vocational
      7. Personality
   E. Test interpretation
   F. Psychological diagnosis

III. Consulting Functions
   A. Admissions counseling
   B. Tracking
   C. Class scheduling
   D. Career and vocational counseling
   E. Academic advisement
   F. Personal counseling for problem-solving and decision-making
   G. Adult/minority group counseling
   H. Foreign student advisement

IV. Participative Functions
   A. Self-development experiences
   B. Leadership training
   C. Career-development experiences
   D. Issues and committee participation
   E. Student government
   F. Cultural events
      1. Lectures
      2. Concerts
      3. Seminars
      4. Programs
   G. Service to clubs
      1. Political
      2. Special interest
      3. Social
   H. Student union

I. Social activities and events
   1. Dances
   2. Trips
   3. Concerts
   4. Motion pictures
J. Student publications
   1. Newspapers
   2. Notices
   3. Literary
K. Athletics
   1. Intercollegiate
   2. Intramural

V. Regulation Functions
   A. Admission regulations
   B. Transfer regulations
   C. Student registration
   D. Grades
      1. Grading policies
      2. Grade reporting
   E. Academic regulations
   F. Social regulations (conduct and discipline code)
   G. Student handbook
   H. Traffic and parking
   I. Campus security

VI. Service Functions
   A. Placement for employment
      1. Coordinating job interviews
      2. Aid in locating part-time employment
      3. Follow-up (employer contact)
   B. Financial aid
      1. Scholarships
      2. Loans
      3. Work-study programs
      4. Veterans benefits
      5. Social security benefits
   C. Student housing
      1. On-campus
      2. Off-campus information
   D. Alumni contact
   E. Health service
      1. Emergency care
      2. Outreach services
         a. Chest x-rays
         b. Tuberculosis tests
         c. Flu shots

3. Regular care
   a. Venereal disease
   b. Marginal ailments
   c. Birth control
4. Drug/alcohol abuse center
5. Workshops and non-credit courses

F. Student learning center
   1. Tutoring
   2. Remedial clinics

G. Ombudsman

H. Disabled student services

I. Child care services

J. Bookstore

K. Food services

L. Legal aid

VII. Organizational Functions

A. Research in student affairs

B. Program evaluation

C. Outreach services
   1. To high schools
   2. To colleges
   3. To community

D. Program articulation
   1. With feeder high schools
   2. With transfer senior colleges and universities

E. Administrative organization

F. In-service education for personnel staff

G. Assumed roles
   1. Adult education
   2. Community service
   3. Instructional improvement
   4. Developmental programs
   5. Curriculum development

The above outline can in no way be considered the ultimate model designed for universal implementation. Certainly diversity exists among the geography, clientele, philosophy, physical plant, mission, size, and purpose of the nearly 1,200 two-year colleges in the nation; and each of these institutions has various and unique needs which may be met through program implementation within the framework of the total student personnel program. There is, perhaps, an equal number of institutions which have no need for various programs suggested above, i.e., intercollegiate sports and on-campus housing. Be that as it may, this outline constitutes a comprehensive view of the personnel program in the community/junior college.

Historically Speaking

To appreciate the modern-day student personnel program fully and to predict its direction in the future, it becomes necessary to examine briefly the history and beginnings of the student personnel program.

Some of the earliest of student personnel officers in higher educational institutions were college deans of men and women. O'Banion and Thurston traced the origin of these positions to the early part of this century and identified them as having the responsibility of assuming the role of disciplinarian (Hopkins, 1974). Along with the disciplinary function, there existed the regulatory function (Monroe, 1973), or the duties of such responsibilities as admission, records, and graduation. Cowley (1937) identified a lack of any substantial coordination or staffing of even these roles until the 1920's.

Monroe (1973) mentioned that few students in higher education prior to the 1930's received any counseling unless they happened to bend the ear of a sympathetic professor, and then the level and amount of professional counseling received was still in doubt. Counseling services began during World War II with the practice of administering standardized tests to military recruits, the interpretation of the test results by professional psychologists, and the ensuing screening, classification, and placement of the recruits. Following such successful results within the military, education soon borrowed these techniques and practices and initiated the first large-scale operation of student testing and classification. The testing of large groups which began during World War I and the further development of testing and counseling during World War II formed a basis of what is considered our modern counseling services program—a main ingredient in the total student personnel program.

Beginning about 1949, the broader philosophy of the student personnel program, the treatment of the student/individual as a whole and complete being, was initiated. Moser and Moser (1963) cited the American Council on Education in that year as openly and aggressively supporting the realignment of the then current philosophies of student personnel work and the resulting effect of the student personnel program becoming more of a developer rather than a regulator. The Council also called on education in general to broaden its concept to include the development of the well-rounded student as a dominant philosophy. Yet with all the verbal and written pleas by the Council to humanize the student personnel program, O'Banion and Thurston (1972) reported that in 1950, and for a period thereafter, the picture of the student personnel officer as a service/maintenance individual was common. These officers were perceived as individuals who maintained positions in the areas of financial aid, admissions, records, registration, and other types of clerically oriented duties.

Exemplifying the fact that the student personnel program continued to assume merely regulatory functions and little else, Humphrey, the director of the student personnel program at City College of Chicago/Wilson Campus and chairman of the American Association of Junior Colleges' Student Personnel Committee, criticized the state of the two-year colleges' services programs. Monroe (1973) supported many of Humphrey's criticisms—inadequate staffing

both in numbers and in training, a paucity of office space, a lack of good and innovative programs, inadequate funding, and lack of full services.

Finally, when the Soviet Union's Sputnik orbited the world on October 4, 1957, the United States Congress hurriedly put together the National Defense Education Act and in early 1958 enacted it into Public Law 85-864. As Monroe (1973) pointed out, the law was significant for the student personnel program in that it recognized the need to identify the nation's human talents and resources and financial support was provided for the improvement of guidance and personnel services and for the training of professional workers to serve student personnel programs. This event alone had much to do with rectifying the inadequacies that existed in the community/junior college student personnel programs.

With the federal government focusing on the area of student personnel programs, many research efforts were begun and many articles written describing student personnel program needs. For example, Alderson (1961), in his 1959 survey of the student personnel programs in California two-year colleges, found that 60 percent of the institutions studied had no professionally trained counselors but rather employed the services, on a release-time basis, of regular faculty members as counselors. Similar findings were reported by Starr (1961) in his study of two-year colleges in the Northwest.

Perhaps one of the most cited studies concerning the status of community/junior college student personnel programs from that era is Medsker's (1960) survey of nearly 250 two-year institutions. Medsker found that only 22 percent of the institutions had a designated administrator for student personnel services, that 45 percent had the chief administrator of the college shoulder the directorship of the program, and the remaining 33 percent lent no direction to their program whatsoever. He also found that the faculty was assigned the prime responsibility for counseling in 66 percent of the institutions; 80 percent of this group were given no extra compensation or released time for their counseling duties.

Several years elapsed before the initiation of the much heralded and respected two-year study by the American Association of Junior Colleges, a study which evaluated the practices of community/junior college student personnel programs in 49 institutions with enrollments of over 1,000 and 74 colleges with fewer than 1,000 (Wiley, 1972). Funded by the Carnegie Corporation the research was directed by Max Raines under the chairmanship of T. R. McConnell (Matson, 1972). Although many significant conclusions were drawn from the McConnell-Raines study – some of which will be mentioned later in this paper – it was generally found that only 10 percent of all community/junior colleges were deserving of a commendable rating in their student personnel program, that 75 percent had not even developed a program which could be termed adequate, and that over 50 percent of the two-year colleges in the nation had inadequate counseling functions (Raines, 1965). McConnell (1965), in his report to the Carnegie Corporation, plainly described the nation's community/junior college student personnel programs as being woefully inadequate.

Almost immediately after the McConnell-Raines study had been completed and the results of the massive training programs initiated by the passage of the N.D.E.A. were realized, the state of the student personnel program in the community/junior college began a vast improvement. For example, Yoder and Beals (1966), in their survey of a number of community colleges, found that 64 percent of their sample employed full-time professional counselors, that over 85 percent had an educational testing program, and that 88 percent conducted some form of freshman orientation. Medsker and Tillery (1971) reported that, contrary to previous findings, both community/junior college faculty and administration were beginning to accept the functions of the student personnel program as an integral part of the institution's purpose.

The Yoder and Beals and the Medsker and Tillery studies are but two examples of numerous studies which show how the community-junior college student personnel program has progressed greatly since the days the deans of men and women stalked the campuses in search of disciplinary problems.

A Plea for Decentralization

With the newly found interest in rapid growth of the student personnel program, problems resulting from the specialization of services, the need for better communication among these now uniquely specialized functions (Biggs, Bakkenist, and Barnhart, 1973), and the need to expand geographically on campus seemed to become more complex each year. Other needs and problems were how to increase accessibility to both students and faculty (Matson, 1972), the assumed new identity of outreach, the realization of closely associated goals, philosophies, and activities with the academic area of the institution (Newton, 1974), the need for many services to be located and to serve within the academic areas, and the growing realization of present flexibility and envisioned future change (Clarke, 1975). All served to initiate a call for the decentralization of services within the student personnel program which was heard nationwide and has had mixed responses.

Matson (1972), in her review of the Esso Education Foundation's year-long study made in response to the McConnell-Raines suggestion for a restudy of the community/junior college student personnel program by 1970, analyzed the results with several factors in mind, one of which was the decentralization of personnel services. Her analysis included the following findings: that only 37 percent of the 589 community/junior colleges studied had reported decentralization to some extent of any of their personnel services; and that in 66 percent of these only decentralization through physical relocation rather than through change in responsibility took place; and that out of those institutions which had not yet decentralized their program, only 18 percent had any plans underway to do so in the future.

Despite the negative findings of Matson (1972), later studies have shown a growing trend toward decentralization. Newton (1974), for example, cited St. Louis Junior College as an excellent example of decentralizing, both physically and administratively, by relocation of the personnel services into various academic areas. O'Banion (1971) cited the Portland Community College of Oregon as a benchmark in physical decentralization of personnel service.

Wherever the students were likely to congregate on campus, open-fashion desks manned by counselors were located. DeZutter (1973) reported that Penn Valley Community College of Kansas City, Missouri, had also decentralized in a unique and interesting manner. A mobile career counseling vehicle, operated by the campus career center and manned by bilingual counselors and assistants, parks temporarily at various locations in the community serving as an outreach to the community's citizens. William Rainey Harper College (Fischer and Rankin, 1973) in 1970 added to its student personnel program a comprehensive family agency and referral service incorporating personal, family, and marriage counseling along with the usual vocational and academic counseling functions as an outreach to the community.

As seen by these latter examples, one of the many desiderata of decentralization is the addition of community outreach rather than the continuation of isolation (LeBlanc, 1975). And although Matson (1972), in a previously mentioned study, found that 20 percent of the community/junior colleges studied did not intend to extend any element of their student personnel programs to the community, she reported that 60 percent of the institutions did offer various student services to non-student community members. In a recent survey of two-year colleges, Goodman, Beard, and Martin (1975) found that 77 percent were making available some or all of their student services to non-students in the community, with many stating success in attracting prospective students to matriculate in their institutions via these outreach programs.

A Perspective of Current Practices

In examining the student personnel program of the community/junior college, a brief review of some current thoughts and practices at many institutions across the nation may be of help in understanding how the concept of student services has developed and, more importantly, where the program is headed in the future.

Counseling. Because of the disruptive nature of the community/junior college, Wrenn (1964) identified the counseling function as having the greatest significance. Koos (1970) maintains this same level of ultimate significance, although his reasons are based on the needs and characteristics of the two-year student. But for whatever reasons(s) one attaches to substantiate the importance of the consulting functions in the community/junior college, it is agreed that guidance and counseling is one of the primary areas of the total student personnel program.

In their recent study of 140 community/junior colleges, Goodman, Beard, and Martin 1975) showed a median ratio of one counselor per 338 students with almost 90 percent of the institutions reporting the existence of an active and organized counseling program. And although these findings may not reflect the ideal situation, they do show a far better status of counseling in the community/junior college now than at any other period in the past.

Along with some of the previously mentioned examples of current counseling practices, O'Banion (197) pointed out the encouragement that counselors are given at Fulton-Montgomery Community College in New York to participate in faculty committees on all levels and even to teach classes

themselves so as not to lose touch, but rather to draw closer ties, with the academic/instructional program. He also brought attention to the rotation practices of counselors at William Rainey Harper College in Illinois, a rotation which takes place on a regular basis so that all divisional counselors can maintain equal and professional identities with their other colleagues in the entire student personnel program. Selgas (1974), in his study of the Harrisburg Area Community College in Pennsylvania, raised various questions to stimulate that institution to make available more counselors for the evening students to clarify information in campus publications informing students exactly what services are available and where they are to be found.

Student Development. Student development programs have served, where implemented, as an avenue for the expansion of human potential, and developing this potential with positive results is an objective worthy of much effort in any student personnel program. Relative to students recognizing and realizing their potential, Diggory and Norlock (1964) found that a student who expects success in a given area will actually try harder and will experience tremendous improvement compared to a student who expects failure in the same area. One wonders why all communi[illegible]nior colleges should not finance and initiate solid student development programs so that all students would be able to reach their maximum potential (Collins, 1972).

In his study of perceptions of student development programs in Illinois community colleges, Mortvedt (1975) found that although his subjects (top administrators in the community colleges) felt human development was essential in their respective campuses, the student development programs were consistently rated lower in quality and importance than such clerical functions of the student personnel program as admission, registration, student records, and maintenance. Despite the poor attitude shown toward programs of student development, various innovative programs do exist which may serve as models for future development on other community/junior college campuses.

Creamer, et al., (1972) reported Fulton-Montgomery College offering various student development seminar-type programs that have met with great success in topics ranging from Achievement and Motivation to Educational and Vocational Exploration to Human Relations and Group Dynamics. A two-year college in Kansas maintains a programmed learning center (Newton, 1974) which makes available taped lectures, assignments, and readings to students who employ the service at their own rate of development. A third example, Napa Valley Community College in California (Dallas, 1971), is one which also offers specialized class-type instruction within its student personnel program. Two particular areas are emphasized for the students—one entitled Psychological Testing which, after the administration of various tests and inventories, a process of self-evaluation and awareness follows; the second, entitled Environmental/Group Processes, concentrates on problem-solving and exploring relevant difficulties of real world living.

Health Services. Perhaps least satisfactory of all services currently being provided by the student personnel program on the community/junior college campus is the health service (Monroe, 1973). In a survey of 46 large community colleges, Thurston, Norrie, and Venable (1970) found that only 35 institutions

offered to their students some form of health service, and the majority of such services were limited to emergency and first-aid treatment; six of the surveyed colleges offered no health service whatsoever; and the remaining four institutions were either planning or in the process of implementing a health service within their organization. Yoder and Beals (1966) found that a majority of their sample of two-year colleges employed a full-time nurse who did little more than attend to first-aid situations.

Caldwell (1975) proposed that the health service in the community/junior college extend itself and become part of the entire teaching/learning process. In addition to the regular first-aid service, Caldwell called for the inclusion of various health fairs (the outreaching of a variety of health measures and services to the students—flu shots, chest x-rays, tuberculosis tests). Along with the health fair concept, Caldwell proposed the inclusion of workshops (including birth control programs, drug and alcohol abuse programs), coursework (whether for credit or non-credit in first-aid/emergency care training, health education, and health insurance awareness sessions), and the acceptance of responsibilities that Thurston, Norrie, and Venable (1970) referred to so aptly as referral (medical, psychological, or psychiatric). It is obvious that the student personnel program can be faulted when it views the health service as one to be limited to first-aid only.

Placement Services. Because the community/junior college has evolved into a major occupational development and training station meeting the unique needs of its community environment, the placement program has become a most necessary and imperative service function within the total student personnel program. Larsen and Karr (1973) mentioned several areas with which a placement service should deal, e.g., helping the student locate a particular job with a particular company, identifying potential career opportunities within the community, and helping the student realize the existence or absence of benefits and other concerns of working in any particular occupation or organization. Mons (1962) commented on the importance of public relations activities and enlisting cooperation of employers to insure the successful operation of the placement program.

Rather than enumerate the various programs around the nation in the placement area, this writer will mention three particularly interesting references which at this time may be most helpful for the reader's further exploration in the area. One is a rather detailed summary of the comprehensive job placement program at New Jersey's Middlesex County College (Wiley, 1972); another elaborates upon the guidelines of placement services and studies thereof for an entire statewide system of community/junior colleges (Florida State Department of Education, Division of Community Junior Colleges, 1974); and the third details a special career awareness week and its many activities in a Virginia institution (McDaniels, Hanau, and Cook, 1975).

Non-Traditional Student Services. The problem of relating traditional higher education to non-traditional students is a very real one, and thus the immense area of special programs and services to the non-traditional students within the complete student personnel program is highly justified. This population of non-traditional students in the community/junior college in-

cludes minority students, fully employed part-time students, academically high-risk students, culturally deprived students, married students, and many other unique groups of individuals.

The largest and fastest growing portion of community/junior college clientele in the United States is the mature student population (Harlacher, 1970). Many two-year colleges have demonstrated a recognition of and commitment toward the concept of life-long learning and thus have developed, within the student personnel program, a number of services designed especially with the mature student in mind (Stetar, 1974). For example, Roueche (1968) stated the need for the community/junior college to place a major emphasis on adult training and retraining. As a result, Hartwig (1973) expressed the great value of adult guidance and counseling programs as an integral part of the entire training/retraining educational program and went on to describe the various career/vocational adult guidance and counseling programs in 19 community/junior colleges in the state of Kansas.

Others have also recognized the need and have proposed or researched programs which would respond to the needs of the older student. Anderson (1975) described the curricular-based counseling program designed for the mature female student at Virginia Western Community College. Stetar (1974) discussed the need for outreach of such programs to areas such as senior citizen centers, housing projects for the elderly, and neighborhood centers. Harris and Kuckuck (1975) itemized all factors that must be considered in implementing a complete student personnel program for the mature student. Simmons and Kochey (1975) mentioned a number of novel ideas that must certainly be considered, if applicable, in reviewing, upgrading, or revamping a mature student program. The community/junior colleges must not ignore their responsibilities to the students they matriculate, and foreign students are no exception. In fact, community college foreign student enrollment in the United States is probably much higher than the average individual would guess. The National Association for Foreign Student Affairs (1974) cited a total of 49,664 foreign students enrolled in the nation's community/junior colleges, or 2.36 percent of the total enrollment. The NAFSA reported some states with rather significant foreign student enrollment, including Idaho with 4.58 percent, Utah with 6.35 percent, Florida with 10.56 percent, and Washington, D. C., with 28.01 percent.

Cooney (1974) studied the foreign student program in depth in Florida's two-year colleges and delineated various services necessary for a successful program in this area, including appointing a foreign student advisor, developing various policies for admission, including health standards, English language proficiency, and other standards, sponsoring various international clubs and organizations, conducting special orientation programs, and many other services.

If any types of meaningful career/vocational objectives are to be realized by the handicapped/disabled student, special needs must be recognized and met by the community/junior college — especially in the supportive service area (Graham, Grady, et al., 1974). Specialized counseling services designed so that the handicapped student may learn to accept his differences and limitations is

only one area in which there exists a special need (South County Joint Junior College District, 1973). Placement of wheelchair ramps, development of parking areas for the disabled, and other physical plant-type additions or corrections to the campus are responsibilities of the handicapped services function of the student personnel program. MacDougall (1974) reported on an innovative identification and notification system which was designed *to* facilitate the services to disabled students of Southwestern Community College of California.

Of course, three types of non-traditional students listed above are not the only segments of the student population that have various services specifically designed for them. Current literature shows many programs with the non-traditional student in mind. These programs are illustrated by Illinois Central College's and Highland Community College's dial-a-class process of registration expressly designed for those fully-employed, part-time students who cannot take off from work to report to campus during the period of registration (O'Banion, 1975), by Flores' (1975) various conditions for programs regarding the needs of married students, and by the financial aid program for orphans at Wilbur Wright Community College (O'Banion, 1975) in Illinois.

Recruitment, Orientation, and Religion Services. With the compilation of the 1970 census figures, two-year and four-year colleges alike were forced to face the reality of an upcoming steady state in enrollment, the first such state of demographic and social significance in the history of American higher education. In the 100 year period alone (1870-1970), higher education in the United States averaged a yearly increase in enrollment of five percent per annum, the largest gains being realized after World War II when enrollment swelled from barely 2.0 million to the present 8.5 million students (McCarthy, 1975). In view of the present stable or decreasing enrollments and projections of continual declines in birthrates, recruitment has become a vital function of the student personnel program. And although the community colleges have not experienced the rapidity in declining enrollments that many four-year institutions have, the two-year institutions need not wait until their student enrollments decline to disastrous levels before implementing various preventive measures to insure against such a development.

Of course, active student recruitment need not have as its sole objective filling empty seats with warm bodies. Thomas and Hill (1971) mentioned the purpose of the community/junior college recruiting program to be that of informing prospective students of and encouraging them to take advantage of all the various opportunities available at the institution. Several occupationally-oriented recruitment programs at various community/junior colleges in general, and at Pasadena City College in California in particular, are explored in a recent study by Ellis (1974).

Other recent studies examining various responsibilities of the complete student personnel program include one by Fisher (1975). In this study Fisher discussed the benefits of a programmed approach to orientation which he maintained is flexible enough to be more effective in open enrollment situations than the traditional approach to orientation

The question of the church and its role on the community/junior college has also been examined recently by both Rutledge (1974) and Geier (1975). In these articles suggestions were made regarding the proper relationship between the community's churches and the community/junior college, and suggestions were offered as to how both institutions can work with each other to provide support services to benefit the students and the community as a whole.

Research—An Element of Weakness

After considering the evolution of the student personnel program in the community/junior college and examining its many present-day activities, this writer would defeat his purpose if he ignored the one major weakness in student personnel programming: research and evaluation. Medsker (1960), Weatherford (1965), Hoyt (1964), and many others have concurred that there has been a definite paucity in research designed to evaluate the student personnel program in the community/junior college. What research did exist prior to 1960 was what Feder and Sillers (1960) termed surveys of various institutions regarding their activities and practices. Raines (1965) reported that only 10 percent of the community/junior colleges he studied were adequately carrying out any type of research and evaluation on their programs and that in 90 percent, follow-up evaluation and other types of research in the student personnel program were almost non-existent. Yoder and Beals (1966) reported a more optimistic yet still discouraging report that only 44 percent of the western community/junior colleges in their survey carried out any follow-up type research projects. Perhaps the major complaint was lodged by Rothney and Farwell (1963) when they suggested that what had been taking place as far as research in the student personnel area was concerned was little more than simple counting and subsequent classification.

Although it is true that more sophisticated and far-reaching research and evaluation must take place in order that student personnel programs benefit, the simple counting, surveying, and classification techniques must not be totally eliminated or considered illegitimate measures. Constantly obtaining facts about students (numbers, backgrounds, and interests) is vital for proper program planning as much as evaluation of various programs is for facilitation of improvement and achievement of greater effectiveness in services.

There have been several outstanding models of evaluation and research methodology published recently which may serve as models for conducting research in the student personnel field on the community/junior college campus. One in particular by Wattenbarger and Nickens (1973) delineated the FICC (Florida Community Junior College Inter-Institute Research Council) input-output model designed to provide various data in support of evaluation, planning, and budgetary considerations relative to the student personnel program. The particular instruments used were constructed so as to allow the researcher to apply various systems analysis techniques to the variant settings within the student personnel program. Another model, such as that developed by Emrick (1972) in his dissertation, was used by nearly 500 former students to evaluate the student personnel program at Olney Central Community College. Such evaluation models offer much to student personnel workers who want to

determine the perceived student value of such programs. Perhaps the suggestion by Klitzke (1960), if implemented, would prompt the initiation of widespread research and evaluation practices in the field. He suggested that the student personnel program add research as another specific role to the many roles it already has.

In Conclusion

The student personnel program is thus a most important facet in the total community/junior college existence. Its mission is tightly interwoven with the instructional and educational mission of the institution. For the realization of well-developed students, both the non-instructional and the instructional programs of the institution should and must work closely together. Raines (1964) stated that the student personnel program can only be effective in an institution with clearly defined goals and open avenues of communication and cooperation. Thus, the success of the student personnel program depends upon all institutional personnel working together and sharing responsibilities.

It is sometimes erroneously assumed that in order to guarantee a more well-rounded student body, additional monies and personnel should be extended to the student personnel program (Blocker and Richardson, 1968). This may very well be true in some cases of program deprivation, but generally the trend is toward cost-effectiveness and accountability in the student personnel program, and the diminishing of available resources and funds on today's campuses demands that a reappraisal of purposes and roles be made in order that support services operate more efficiently and effectively (McIntyre, 1974). Unfortunately, it is speculated that if the competition for the limited available financial resources on campuses increases and some areas of the total college mission must be abandoned, then some of the functions of the student personnel program may be the first to be eliminated. It is because of this possibility, and the total good of the program in general, that the student personnel program establish and maintain accountability and meaningfulness in its activities and purpose on the community/junior college campus.

Rationally, the student personnel program is and should be considered completely necessary and valuable to the mission of the institution. Because the goals of the institution and of the student personnel program are synonymous, the responsibility of the student personnel program should be to enhance the cognitive and affective growth of the student. This is truly a major role for the student personnel program, yet without such a challenge there would exist no need for the services referred to as "the student personnel program."

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THE TRANSFER PROBLEM BETWEEN THE TWO-YEAR AND THE FOUR-YEAR COLLEGE

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The problem of transferring from the two-year to the four-year institution has reached critical proportions. In the past, a small number of students was involved; thus, from the viewpoint of the institution, the problem seemed insignificant. But the phenomenal growth of two-year colleges has increased that significance.

Facts and Figures

Enrollment in the two-year public and private colleges increased from 660,527 in 1959 (*Junior College Journal*, 1961) to 3,877,741 in 1975 (*The Chronicle of Higher Education*, 1975). During the same period, the number of two-year institutions increased from 663 to more than 1150. From 1973 to 1975 alone, enrollment grew from 2,927,817 to 3,877,741, a gain of 32.4 percent, while university enrollment increased by 7.2 percent and other four-year institutions increased 10.3 percent (*The Chronicle of Higher Education*, 1975).

The community college, which accounts for 96.4 percent of enrollment in two-year institutions, offers technical and vocational programs, developmental courses, and continuing education programs as well as transfer curriculum which parallels that in the four-year college. Despite the wide variety of programs offered, Medsker and Tillery (1971) reported that over two-thirds of entering students indicate they expect to transfer to senior institutions. Over a two-year period many of these students change their career plans. Some adjust their goals and enter a technical or vocational program; others drop out of college. In the final analysis, approximately one-third of entering junior college freshmen complete the transfer curriculum and enroll in a senior institution.

Willingham (1972) estimated that one transfer student enters a senior institution for every three freshmen; probably half of the transfer students come from two-year colleges.

Medsker and Tillery (1971) estimated that, nationally, one-third of all college freshmen were enrolled in junior colleges. Kintzer (1973) indicated that 41 percent of all beginning freshmen entered community colleges. In California and Florida the figures were reported as 80 percent and 69 percent, respectively (Medsker and Tillery, 1971). Monroe (1972) predicted that by 1980 three-

fourths of all college freshmen will attend community colleges, while Medsker and Tillery predicted that one-third of all undergraduates will attend these institutions. The estimates and predictions vary, as might be expected; however, in each case the dramatic growth of the junior college is evident.

Unfortunately, institutions of higher education have only recently begun to give serious attention to the problems which occur when students from two-year colleges attempt to make the transition to four-year colleges. This writer will explore three aspects of the transfer problem: (1) the transfer student, (2) the nature of the transfer problem, and (3) how the transfer process might be improved.

The Transfer Student

Judging from the resisitance which many transfer students meet upon applying for admission at four-year institutions, one might assume that these students differ greatly from the native students. Such is not the case, however. While there are biographical differences between native and transfer students, research generally indicates that in the area of academic achievement there is no significant difference.

Data concerning a large sample of 1966 high school graduates in four states which were collected by Tillery, et al., (cited in Medsker and Tillery,1971) in the SCOPE (School to College: Opportunities for Post-secondary Education) study provide a profile of junior college students in California, Illinois, Massachusetts, and North Carolina. Although there are differences among the four states included in the study, it is evident that junior colleges drew from all quartiles of ability and intellectual predisposition (as measured by certain scales from the Omnibus Personality Inventory). Approximately 40 percent of the junior college students surveyed expected to make above average grades, while 60 percent expected to make grades that were average or below. Medsker and Tillery (1971) noted that in the total sample of high school graduates the percentages were reversed with 60 percent expecting above average grades and 40 percent expecting average or below. In all four states, junior college students were drawn from a wide range of family occupational levels; however, the fact that California draws 27 percent of its community college students from the very high level is an indication of the acceptance of the two-year institution in that state. Basically, the findings of the SCOPE study substantiated the reports of other studies which indicated that students in the two-year college tend to be representative of the total population of the community served and, in fact, like the high school graduating class (Knoell and Medsker, 1965).

At the time of enrollment at the senior college, the two-year college transfer group is like the native student population in the four-year institution, which would indicate that students with less academic ability have adjusted their educational goals or have terminated their formal education short of transferring to a senior institution.

Numerous studies document the academic success of native and transfer students; however, it is often difficult to determine whether it is the students themselves who are being judged or the abilities of the junior and senior institutions to prepare students for upper division work. Perhaps it is time to accept the fact that native and transfer students as groups may have differences depending on the degree of selectivity of four-year institution and the degree of public acceptance of two-year college. It should be remembered, however, that the junior college draws from a cross section of ability levels and that many of these students have ability equal to or greater than the native students. The critical point is that individual students must not be stereotyped on the basis of college attended. The junior college students are not all low-ability students, nor are those in the four-year institutions all high-ability students. Individual students must be judged on their own merit without the dark cloud of junior college prejudice hanging over them.

Research (Knoell and Medsker, 1965; Elliott, 1972) indicated that once the student has transferred he/she can expect a slight decrease in grade-point average during the first semester after transfer. Knoell and Medsker (1965) reported a differential of -.3 and Elliott (1972) found a -.5; however, both studies indicated that grades usually improved in subsequent semesters. Most researchers attribute this drop in academic performance to the shock of adjusting to a new environment.

Other research findings have indicated that attrition tends to be higher for transfer students in the senior institution than for native students who persist the junior year and that transfer students often require more time than native students to complete their baccalaureate programs (Knoell and Medsker, 1965).

Although researchers tend to be encouraged by the results of studies comparing academic success of native and transfer students, Hills' (1965) review of such literature led him to state flatly that high school students considering junior college enrollment should be advised that (1) they can expect a decline in grade-point-average at the time of transfer; (2) they will be less likely to survive to graduation than will native students; and (3) they will take longer to be graduated than native students. Regardless of the difficulties the students may experience at the time of transfer, many individuals feel that enrollment in the community college is their only option. They point to the convenience, the low cost, and the open-door admissions policy as reasons for their decision to enter a two-year institution. The possibility that they will take longer than four years to be graduated or that they will experience some difficulty in the future may not weigh heavily on their decision if they feel the two-year college provides their only hope for beginning a degree program. Regardless of their reasons for enrolling in the two-year institution, the fact remains that upon successful completion of the transfer curriculum, junior college graduates must gain admission to a senior institution in order to continue work toward their educational goals.

The Nature of the Transfer Problem

In December, 1973, approximately 100 concerned educators met at Airlie House near Washington, D.C., to begin implementation of the following goal:

"The establishment of policies and strategies to facilitate the free movement of students within and among postsecondary institutions in order to implement their continuing educational plans" (Kuhns, 1974, p. 16). Prior to that meeting Furniss and Martin (1974) developed a background paper in which they identified the various aspects of the transfer problem. The barriers to transfer which they proposed for consideration at the conference are shown below*:

Lack of agreement on minimum grade-point average
Lack of standardization of grading systems
Difficulty with pass/fail grading system
Lack of synchronized academic calendars
Lack of agreement on external degree standards
Lack of agreement on validity of credit for life experiences
Lack of agreement on validity of correspondence courses
Lack of agreement on validity of adult education courses
Lack of problem-specific counseling
Lack of standardized admission standards
Lack of agreement on core curricula
Lack of understanding of course content and objectives
Lack of coordination between admissions office and department requirements
Associate in Arts not recognized
Lack of agreement on acceptability of CLEP and USAFI tests
Lack of agreement on external degree standards
Lack of agreement of credit by examination
Lack of recognition of educational experiences in the military
Lack of recognition of educational experiences in penal institutions
Remedial and technical courses not transferable
Discrepancies in financial aid: transfer and native students
Refusal to accept "old" credits
Undefined provisions for waiver of requirements
Lack of agreement on credits from accredited and non-accredited colleges
Lack of provisions for transfer of credits from proprietary institutions

*Source: Furniss and Martin, 1974, p. 15.

Basically, the problems of transfer fall into five categories: (1) admissions; (2) evaluation; (3) financial aid; (4) orientation, advising, and counseling; and (5) faculty and administrator attitudes.

Admission

Obviously, the first hurdle to be crossed in the transfer process is gaining admission to the four-year institution. Even for students with sound academic records, this is not so simple as one might believe. The emphasis on freshman admission has been the traditional model for so long that there is a great deal of

inertia to be overcome before transfer admission receives the proper attention. As a result, transfer students are sometimes treated as "second-class citizens" (Menacker, 1969).

Some of the basic problems are the following which were identified by Willingham and Findikyan (1969) in a study of transfer policies at 146 representative senior institutions:

1. There is a general lack of information available concerning transfer policies and procedures. Only one in six of the senior institutions surveyed had prepared special materials for transfer students. Other institutions reported only general information in the catalog.
2. Most senior institutions do not encourage transfer students to apply. Only one out of four senior institutions in the study had special recruiting practices for transfers.
3. Some schools do not accept transfer students until the size of the freshman enrollment is known. This practice is more prevalent in the Northeast where 27 percent of the respondents followed this procedure as compared with nine percent nationally.
4. Criteria for determining the student's eligibility for transfer vary widely. In general, the previous college record is the single most important factor with the C-average student having a good chance of being accepted. Half of the colleges surveyed indicated that if the grade-point average were poor, standardized test scores would influence the decision to accept or reject the student.
5. While the routine C-average student will have little difficulty in gaining admission to a college, the non-routine student—a two-year career student or a student with a grade-point average below C, for example—is more likely to be rejected. The unwillingness to accept the student with less than a C average perhaps assumes that a C is equivalent in every other school, an assumption which is not supported by available evidence. Admissions officers may also assume that the student with less than a C average is incapable of doing college-level work when, in fact, the problem may have been a poor match between college and student or student and program.
6. The lack of space is another aspect of the transfer problem. Willingham and Findykian (1969) estimated that 25,000 transfer students are rejected each year. Whether this is an indication that schools prefer to fill vacancies with freshmen or whether there are insufficient facilities for upper division courses is not known. This lack of space varies nationally as the following rejection rates of qualified transfer applicants indicates: Northeast, 15 percent; Midwest, 7 percent; South, 4 percent; West, 0.

One interesting fact of the Willingham-Findikyan study is that although grade-point averages for two-year and four-year college transfers were comparable, the junior college students had a much lower rejection rate than did the four-year students (24 percent versus 35 percent). This would seem to indicate some acceptance of the junior college on the part of senior institutions as a whole; however, the attitude which categorizies the transfer student as a

second-class citizen has not been entirely removed. Meskill (1971) found, for instance, that about 20 percent of the senior institutions he surveyed required a higher scholastic average than was necessary for native students in good standing. At the same time, the institutions reported transfer students as "having a high rate of persistence to a degree, a low attrition rate, confidence of a probability of success equal to native study, and a low incidence of academic failure" (Meskill, 1971, p. 24). In general, his study supported the findings of the study by Knoell and Medsker (1965) with the exception that the attrition rate was lower, which may be attributed to the fact that 88 percent of the institutions surveyed had enrollments of less than 5,000.

The guidelines for determining grade-point average vary from institution to institution. Some senior colleges exclude career credit in determining GPA; others compute the average based on all work taken regardless of the transferability of the course. A few institutions compute the scholastic average using a three-point system (A = 3, B = 2, C = 1) while others use a four-point system but exclude grades of D. Menacker (1975) reported that community and junior colleges, recognizing the attitude of many senior institutions toward failing grades, have developed a system whereby students receive grades of X or incomplete on all failing work. Students are then allowed to complete the requirements and replace the X with a standard letter grade. In such instances, some two-year institutions maintain two transcripts—one showing only work completed which is used for "export" and one showing all work attempted which is the official record of the junior college. Basically, this practice recognizes the philosophies of the two types of institutions: (1) the junior college, which rejects the philosophy of survival of the fittest and attempts to serve the individual, and (2) the senior institution, which believes evaluative criteria are necessary to separate the sheep from the goats (Menacker, 1975).

Evaluation of Transfer Credit

Once the student has been admitted to a senior institution, he/she still faces an evaluation of coursework both at the college and at the departmental or major levels. At the college level, decisions such as the following are made:

1. *Number of hours to be accepted*—At the lower limit, many colleges indicate they will accept 60 hours of junior college credit (either the first 60 hours earned or the more useful 60 hours depending on institutional policy) and at the upper limit, some colleges will accept any number of junior college credits but will require an additional block of credits—40, for example—in junior and senior level courses. In some instances, the upper-division courses may be taken in any senior institution; however, some require two years of residency at the degree granting institution (Knoell and Medsker, 1965).
2. *Transferability of credit for technical, vocational, and developmental courses*—Although some colleges exclude such courses unless they have comparable undergraduate offerings, many institutions are taking a more liberal stand (Kintzer, 1971). The University of West Florida (Willingham, 1972) and the School of Applied Science of the Rochester

Technical Institute (Satre, 1973) accept the entire vocational program and develop a baccalaureate program on top of the technical work. (It should be noted that these two institutions were established specifically to meet the needs of junior college transfers. Traditional institutions are not always so accommodating.)

3. *Acceptability of coursework with grades of D* — As has been mentioned earlier, a variety of practices is followed in determining the value of a grade of D when assessing students' grade-point average for admission purposes. The evaluation of D grades for program purposes is equally complicated. Some colleges accept D coursework — in the sense that the student is not required to repeat the course — while excluding credit hours for D courses from the total which will be accepted. Other colleges accept neither the course nor the credit and still others accept both as they would for their native students.
4. *Acceptability of coursework to meet general education requirements* — Due to the variance in general education requirements at senior institutions, it is necessary that the student's junior college transcript be evaluated to determine which courses will fulfill general education requirements at that institution.

Finally, at the departmental level, decisions must be made concerning coursework from the two-year institution which will satisfy requirements in the major area. Again, the problem of the D grade arises; and though it has been accepted for both coursework and credit by the institution, the departmental adviser may recommend or require that it be repeated; and, admittedly, it may be to the student's advantage to do so. Other potential problems concern the attitude of faculty in the four-year institution toward coursework from the two-year college; the match of major coursework taken at the junior college with that required by the senior institution; and the comparability of upper- and lower-division coursework when, for example, a student has completed a course at the two-year college that is scheduled for the junior or senior year at the four-year institution.

Financial Aid

The study of Knoell and Medsker (1965) identified economic factors as playing a major role in the attrition of transfer students, with 40 percent of those who withdrew listing "lack of money" as the reason. Three categories of economic problems affecting academic progress are listed below:

1. The first type identified concerned students who were employed during their junior college years, who studied enough to get by, and who, by selecting courses wisely, were able to maintain a C average. Upon arrival at the senior institution, these students sometimes experienced difficulty because they had not gained the necessary study skills and lacked knowledge in introductory courses.
2. The second type concerned students who dropped out between junior and senior college to work and, as a result, lost study skills as well as knowledge gained in junior college courses.

3. The third type of problem concerned transfer students who had only enough money saved for one semester at the senior institution. Data showed that these students usually had a decline in academic standing making it difficult for them to secure financial aid or part-time work during the following semester.

Meskill's (1971) survey of 178 senior institutions produced results indicating that the lack of finances was not nearly so great as the previous study reported. In the private institutions, 24 percent of the administrators affirmed that financial problems affected attrition while 29 percent of administrators in the public institutions viewed the two as related. It is the opinion of this writer that the Knoell-Medsker study is more reliable in this area since it deals with student rather than administrator responses. At least one study (Pascarella, 1974) of administrator and faculty ability to understand student perceptions indicated that they were unable to do so with accuracy.

Although the policy statements for most four-year institutions consider the junior college transfer and the freshman student equally eligible for financial assistant, in practice the transfer student suffers. A study (Van Dusen, 1974) conducted during the 1971-72 year by the College Entrance Examination Board, four state agencies, and 300 postsecondary institutions provided a close look at the needs and inequities regarding financial aid for the transfer student. Based on data from the Student Resources Survey, it was determined that the transfer student's need was $176 greater at the public institution than that of the freshman student ($1,237 vs. $1,061) and at the private institution, the need was $115 greater ($1,895 vs. $1,780). Regardless of the evidence of need, the Van Dusen study indicates that a smaller percentage of community college transfers received aid than did first-time admittees. As a result, Van Dusen has termed transfer students "the forgotten minority."

Willingham and Findikyan (1972) reported that fewer than one college in five had earmarked financial aid especially for transfer students. In comparing transfer and first-time admittees, they found that 33 percent of new freshmen received aid compared with 14 percent of the transfer students. Although they noted that the situation had improved somewhat since the time of a 1961 survey, the disparity still exists and requires attention.

Orientation, Advising, and Counseling

Surely one of the most frustrating aspects of the transfer process must be the lack of information and academic advising for the student. Even in traditional situations, colleges and universities find it difficult to "get a handle" on orientation, advising, and counseling. Yet the needs of the non-traditional student are greater in these areas and the efforts and effectiveness appear even weaker than for the traditional student. In the junior college, where preparation for successful transfer should begin, the guidance program described in glowing terms in shiny brochures may in actuality be one counselor who is also financial aid director and cheerleader sponsor — a situation which may cause one to question the institution's commitment to its stated goals. While it is true that many of the aspects of advising and orientation can be

handled effectively by concerned and informed faculty members, the counseling and testing functions should be the responsibility of professional counselors. A general feeling of uncertainty on the part of the student concerning ability to do college work and uncertainty concerning plans for a major or career make it imperative that the junior college provide for academic and career counseling.

Apparently neither the two-year colleges nor the four-year colleges provide adequate assistance in these areas. Knoell and Medsker (1965) reported:

> The transfer students gave much less favorable ratings to the counseling and academic advising they received in junior college than they did to various aspects of the instructional program. However, their opinions of junior college counseling and advising were more favorable than their feelings toward comparable services in the four-year institutions to which they transferred (p. 64).

At the senior college, the transfer students too often are grouped with freshmen for the purpose of orientation. A study conducted by the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (Menacker, 1975) revealed that less than 20 percent of the 635 senior institutions surveyed conducted special orientation sessions for transfer students. Willingham and Findikyan (1972) found that 29 percent of the institutions in their study had orientation programs for transfers. Many administrators, in fact, show resistance to separating freshmen and transfers for the orientation process. The result is that the needs of the transfer students for orientation to the senior institution are largely unmet. A recent survey of community college transfers showed that 60 percent of the students indicated their transition from the junior to the senior institution could have been eased by orientation programs specifically designed for transfer students (Menacker, 1975).

One aspect of the transfer problem which should be addressed by both two-year and four-year institutions is the phenomenon identified by researchers as "transfer shock," a drop in grade-point standing during the first semester at the senior institution. Hills (1965) reported that in 44 of 46 studies a decline in academic standing had taken place at the time of transfer. Many administrators seem to have the opinion that since transfer students have had the experience of attending college, they do not require special attention to become adjusted to the senior institution. Yet transfer students may be living away from home for the first time, may have serious concerns about their ability to do senior college work, and may be experiencing difficult social situations. In all these aspects they may appear like the freshmen; yet, they are expected to function at the junior level of ability and sophistication. At this level they must compete with native students who know the professors, who have some idea of what to expect in terms of departmental or college requirements, who have identifiable peer groups—in other words, they compete with students who "know the ropes." Though the same problems may exist at the freshman level, at least the freshmen have the comfort of being "green" together.

Attitudes toward the Junior College

A final problem which to a large extent pervades all of the difficulties listed heretofore concerns the attitude of senior college personnel toward the junior college. Dearing (1975) stated:

> The least defensible, though perhaps most powerfully influential, origins of hostility toward the transfer student are probably to be found in persistent impressions and perceptions of a "pecking order" among educational institutions. By one such hierarchy, the relative prestige of both teachers and students is arranged on a descending scale from graduate study to kindergarten. Accordingly, universities outrank colleges, baccalaureate colleges outrank community colleges, community colleges enjoy more status and prestige than high schools, and so on down the line (p. 241).

There can be no doubt that this attitude toward the transfer student exists on many senior college campuses. The fact that a senior institution has a different set of standards for native students than for transfers can be attributed only to the attitude that academic programs at the senior institution are superior to those at the junior college. An example of this double standard is the willingness of the four-year college to accept grades of D made by native students but to refuse to honor coursework in which the grade of D was made at a junior college. A closer look at the conditions under which the native and transfer students earned grades of D may reveal that the transfer was taught by a teacher with many years of successful experience while the native student was taught by a first-year teaching assistant. In this and other situations, it is obvious that the "our course is better" attitude has gone unquestioned at the senior institution.

The "pecking order" attitude occurs not only at the institutional level but also at the faculty level as well. At a conference of the Commission on Undergraduate Education in the Biological Sciences (Hertig, 1973) concerning articulation problems, one participant made the following remarks:

> Tension between two-year colleges and four-year college faculties often stems from the attitude that the two-year college staff is inferior (an attitude often shared by the two-year college biologists themselves). Failure of some two-year college introductory biology courses to transfer for majors can be attributed to the unwillingness of some four-year biologists to accept their two-year college counterparts as professionals. By acknowledging that the two-year college instructor is competent to teach general biology even though he may lack the background for more specialized instruction, the four-year college faculty can alleviate some problems of articulation (p. 40).

There is no doubt but that there are grade-point differentials between junior and senior institutions just as there are between various senior institutions (Knoell and Medsker, 1965). As a result, it would be possible to justify the rejection of certain courses or D grades from certain colleges; however, the indiscriminate practice of rejecting junior college biology courses, for example, or all junior college courses with grades of D is unwarranted. The need exists at four-year institutions, particularly, for a better understanding of the junior college, its faculty, and its students.

As Gleaster stated: "Articulation is both a process and an attitude, and . . . attitude is the more important of the two, for without it there can be no workable process" (cited in Menacker, 1975, p. 60).

Recommendations for Improving the Transfer Process

The transfer problems which have been outlined are the result of inadequate or poorly defined agreements between junior and senior institutions

and the failure of both institutions to provide adequate guidance for the transfer student. In order to alleviate transfer problems, it will be necessary for institutions to take positive actions to improve in these areas.

Intercollegiate Agreements

One important step which must be taken to assure a smooth transition from the two-year institution to the four-year institution is the development of articulation agreements.

Late in the 1950's, recognizing the fact that transfer of students would soon become a nationwide educational problem, three professional associations initiated a cooperative effort to develop guidelines for transfer admission. As a result, the Joint Committee on Junior and Senior Colleges came into being under the sponsorship of the Association of American Colleges, the American Association of Junior Colleges, and the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers. The outcome of this group's effort was a document titled *Guidelines for Improving Articulation between Junior and Senior Colleges* (1966). In developing the *Guidelines* the committee relied heavily on the results of the Knoell-Medsker (1965) study and on conferences held in each of the 10 states involved in that study. The resulting document, which has become a basic reference concerning transfer admissions, contains 27 guidelines organized under five headings: admissions; evaluation of transfer courses; curriculum planning; advising, counseling, and other student personnel programs; and articulation programs. These guidelines, which are in no sense binding on any institution, are recommended for use in the development of transfer admissions policies and for establishing articulation agreements between specific junior and senior institutions.

In 1971 Willingham (1972) surveyed the 43 institutions which participated in the Knoell-Medsker transfer study to determine the degree to which they adhered to 16 representative guidelines. The results are shown in Table 1. Willingham observed that there was greater adherence to policy statements (e.g. 3, 7, 8, 16) than to items requiring action on the part of the institution (e.g. 4, 9, 12, 14). He concluded: "The failure of many colleges to accept such recommendations has no ready explanation save academic inertia" (p. 40).

TABLE 1

PERCENTAGE OF FOUR-YEAR INSTITUTIONS ADHERING TO SELECTED ARTICULATION GUIDELINES

Admissions	
1. Transfers are typically admitted by the beginning of their last term in the junior college.	35%
2. If space for transfers who have completed two years is limited, priority goes to applicants with the highest probability of success.	37%

3. Transfer applicants from new colleges within the state are admitted on the same basis as those from accredited institutions. 63%
4. Each year community colleges are provided information on the performance of their former students. 49%

Credit

5. Transfer students have the option of satisfying graduation requirements in effect at the time they entered the community college as freshmen. 55%
6. Satisfactory completion of an associate degree transfer program guarantees upper division standing at the time of transfer. 51%
7. Credit granted through CLEP is transferable. 63%
8. D grades earned by transfer students are evaluated on the same basis as grades earned by native students. 83%

Articulation and Communication

9. The admission staff visits the primary feeder junior colleges at least twice each year. 42%
10. Personnel from the primary feeder colleges visit the campus to talk with former students. 35%
11. There is an annual joint review of what courses are accepted in satisfaction of specific requirements, and agreements are communicated in writing to advisors, counselors, faculty, etc. 50%
12. The institution has done formal studies of transfer students during the past year. 42%

Guidance and Financial Aid

13. Junior college personnel meet regularly on the campus to discuss services available to students after transfer. 60%
14. Special materials and procedures have been developed for the orientation of transfers (separate from freshmen). 42%
15. Proportionately, as many transfer students as freshmen receive financial aid. 42%
16. Application procedures, deadlines, or qualifications do not make it more difficult for transfers to receive aid. 66%

Source: Willingham, 1972, p. 41.

On a statewide basis, Kintzer (1971) reported articulation efforts in three broad categories: (1) "articulation conference plans," characterized by negotiation and voluntary action; (2) "formula plans," such as those of Illinois and Florida which equate the Associate of Arts Degree with general education requirements of the senior institution; and (3) "core curriculum plans," such as those used in Texas and Georgia which specify on a statewide basis the general education requirements to be met. Kintzer (cited in Willingham, 1972) reported that 14 of the 30 states which include 90 percent of the community

colleges have statewide articulation plans; 17 have a state articulation committee; and 22 senior institutions have articulation guidelines.

Willingham (1972) observed that there are positive and negative aspects to a review of literature concerning student transfer. On the positive side is the evidence that the junior college is successfully educating large numbers of transfer students. On the negative side is the fact that transfer problems have been ignored too long.

A recent revival of an idea which was supported at the turn of the century by William Rainey Harper is the upper division college. Prior to 1964, three states—California, Tennessee, and Indiana—had private upper division institutions in operation. By 1971, the newly-organized Association of Upper Level Colleges and Universities reported 24 such institutions either planned or in operation (Higbee, 1973). Two years later, Kintzer (1973) reported a total of 33 upper division colleges in seven states (Florida, Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, New York, Pennsylvania, and Texas). Since these colleges provide no instruction at the freshman and sophomore levels, they must rely heavily on the community colleges for students. As one might imagine, they work closely with junior colleges in the area to smooth the transfer process and to provide for baccalaureate programs designed to meet local needs. Transfer students have the advantage of "starting even" with all other students at the junior level and of studying with professors positively oriented to the transfer rather than the native student. The upper division college is not without its problems; nevertheless, it appears to offer solutions to many of the problems facing the transfer student.

Guidance Programs at Two-Year and Four-Year Institutions

The key to a guidance program for the prospective transfer student is up-to-date information concerning admissions procedures, programs, and requirements at the senior institution. Yet only about one in six senior institutions surveyed by Willingham and Findikyan (1969) had developed special materials concerning transfer procedures. If this number is so small, it seems safe to project that the number who make any effort to develop materials concerning articulation of courses and programs will be even smaller. Obviously, this is a time-consuming effort requiring that persons who are intimately acquainted with requirements at the senior institutions work closely with their counterparts at various junior colleges to determine which courses will be accepted as major and general education requirements.

Kintzer reported (1973) that all of the public universities in Florida annually publish brochures for use in junior college counseling. Included in the documents are degree program requirements and recommended lower division and upper division programs for every major. While a few universities develop such materials on an individual basis, Florida may be the only state to require such action on the part of all public institutions of higher education on a statewide basis.

Armed with specific information concerning admissions and course articulation, junior and senior colleges should implement guidance programs which would provide the following services for transfer students:

1. A counselor at the junior college should meet with each freshman student to discuss educational goals and to begin at once to plan toward successful transfer to a senior institution, if that is the student's goal. Knoell and Medsker (1965) reported: "All or most junior college students could be successful in achieving their degree goals after transfer if they would select four-year institutions and major fields which are appropriate to their ability and prior achievement" (p. 89). This places a great responsibility on the junior college to develop an outstanding counseling program to meet the individual needs of its students. Counseling and/or advising sessions should be scheduled at least once each semester to evaluate programs and to plan for the next semester.
2. Senior college personnel should visit the junior colleges regularly to meet with students who are interested in transferring to that institution. It is particularly important that they be prepared to discuss admissions procedures, program requirements, and financial aid.
3. During the sophomore year, student personnel at the junior college should assist the student in gaining admission and, if necessary, financial aid at the senior institution.
4. Senior college personnel should plan orientation programs to meet the specific needs of transfer students. Since there are differences of opinion as to what the transfer student's "need" really is, it seems apparent that, through institutional research, each college or university should attempt to identify the problems as well as the answers. Menacker (1975) has suggested four activities which seem appropriate as a basis for transfer orientation:
    a. An introduction to the demands and requirements of upper division courses, and the differences between them and introductory or survey courses taught during the first two years of college study.
    b. An intensive exploration of potential major fields of study for new transfers, who soon must make a definite curriculum commitment.
    c. Opportunities to become personally acquainted with professors and upperclassmen in the department of their major.
    d. An introduction to graduate school and employment opportunitites and requirements in the various fields (p. 85).
5. Senior College counselors and/or advisers must work with the transfer student to dove-tail programs, re-examine goals, and alleviate any problems which may arise during the transition period.

The senior institution which has no difficulty filling quotas with freshman students may well decide against special accommodations for transfer students. However, the institution which is recruiting transfer students, either as a result of an institutional decision or a statewide mandate, must address itself to solving the problems of transferring from the two-year to the four-year institution.

If the social experiment which has revitalized the community college since 1950 is to fulfill its promise, institutions as well as state and regional agencies must act to alleviate the problems which confront the transfer student.

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FACULTY IN THE TWO-YEAR COLLEGE

Randall W. Dahl

If someone were to raise Butch Cassidy's famous question—"Who *are* those guys?"—with respect to the faculty at two-year colleges in the United States, most scholars in the field of Higher Education would be hard-pressed to provide a meaningful answer. In this case, the scholar should not be made to feel totally at fault, for the plain fact is that the amount and nature of the relevant information presently available are probably insufficient to provide a meaningful answer anyway. This is not to say that the faculties of two-year colleges have been ignored in the literature. Rather, it is to say that much less is actually known about such people—now nearly 165,000 strong by the most recent count of the American Association of Community, Junior and Technical colleges (Drake, ed., 1975)—than might be expected because of their numbers or the importance which is attributed to the role they play in the newest and most rapidly expanding subsidiary of the largest of American enterprises, education.

Cohen and Brawer (1972) have emphatically described this role, stating: "Instructors are the central force in the junior college. Without them there is nothing but buildings and grounds—no product, no process, no purpose, no identity" (p. 25). This pivotal role is more completely summarized, if less emphatically stated, by Blocker, et al., (1965):

> General institutional purposes are translated into action and behavior patterns by faculty members, and these patterns are subsequently transmitted to students. At this point, a synthesis of institutional and individual objectives takes place (p. 164).

Faculty members, then, represent the principal dimension through which the goals of the student and the institution are activated, integrated, and ultimately realized.

Although Monroe (1972) described research studies on the two-year college faculty as "sparse," useful studies do exist. Further, other data, as well as thoughtful commentaries, though less formal and direct, are available. The problem is perhaps one of the effective identification and organization of limited data; and it is the purpose of this paper to provide such identification and organization and, thereby, provide some assistance and direction in the continuing study of the two-year college faculty.

Prior to considering the various available studies and general information, an early caution is necessary in order that the findings summarized and described here not be over-generalized, under-generalized, or otherwise misconstrued. As has been noted and forcefully demonstrated by Rodgers (1972), the distinction between public and private control in the study of any aspect of the two-year college is crucial. Several of the studies described in succeeding sections of this paper underscore the significance of this distinction in terms of its impact on faculty. The results of studies—or other general information—in which this distinction is not acknowledged are by no means suspect, but caution is advised in interpretation.

General Considerations

In what is considered by many as a landmark analytical study of faculty in two-year colleges, Garrison (1966) concluded that "the junior college teacher is—or may be becoming—a new breed of instructor in higher education" (p. 15). Whether or not Garrison's conclusion has been proved 10 years later is less important than his suggestion that the two-year college instructor is identifiable and potentially distinctive.

Faculty members may be studied individually and collectively from many perspectives, and with respect to a wide variety of issues and characteristics, including demography, academic and experiential background, sub-cultures, and attitudes and values, perceptions of their environment, job satisfaction and morale, perceived roles, and problems, concerns, and issues. By way of further warning, it should be noted that the study of two-year college faculty in particular is further complicated by the issue of employment status: full-time versus part-time. As described in the subsequent section "Sub-Cultures," part-time or adjunct faculty constitute a significant and, according to figures reported by the American Association of Junior Colleges (1972) and Drake (ed., 1975), growing proportion of all two-year college faculty. While important in the study of two-year college faculty in many respects, the issue of a significant part-time faculty is especially important in the interpretation of nationwide faculty surveys such as those reported by Bayer (1970, 1973), which are directed almost exclusively to full-time faculty.

Demography

Two-year college faculties are relatively young, predominantly male, and include a disproportionately small complement of racial and ethnic minorities. Faculty composition by sex is heavily weighted in favor of males, and the proportionate gap appears to be widening. In an early study, Medsker (1960) reported that 72 percent of the two-year college faculty was male, while more recently, Bayer (1970, 1973) found that males accounted for 74.4 percent and 78.1 percent, respectively, of the total, full-time two-year college faculty. Consistent with patterns in other professions, Bayer (1973) reported that a smaller proportion of the female faculty members were married than males, to the extent that the female faculty member was twice as likely to be unmarried as her male colleague.

The two-year college faculty is youthful, but the age level difference between these faculty and their colleagues in other institutions of higher education has been noticeably narrowed. Siehr, et al., (1963), reported a median faculty age in 1963 of 33 years and found that 75 percent of their sample of Michigan community college faculty were between the ages of 20 and 39. Bayer (1970) and Medsker and Tillery (1971) six years later found that approximately 60 percent of the faculty members were between the ages of 30 and 50 and that less than 10 percent were under 30; and these figures closely approximated corresponding proportions for faculty in all institutions of higher education (two-year, four-year, and university). Of some interest is the finding that women were found in larger proportions than men in the youngest age groups (13 percent as opposed to six percent) both in two-year colleges and in all institutions, perhaps indicating greater recent emphasis on adding women to the faculty.

Information concerning racial composition of faculties has only recently become available, and some increase in the proportion of minority faculty members in the two-year college is indicated. Specifically, according to national surveys by Bayer (1970, 1973), the proportion of minority faculty members in two-year institutions nearly quadrupled between 1969 and 1973, increasing from slightly more than one percent to nearly four percent. The proportion of minority faculty in two-year colleges in 1973 was still noticeably less than the corresponding proportion for all institutions, except among female faculty.

Finally, Monroe (1972) has suggested that two-year college faculty, like public school teachers, come predominantly from middle-class, lower middle-class, and upper working-class socio-economic backgrounds. Recent studies do not effectively explore this issue, but there is some evidence on at least one associated issue. Bayer (1973) found a noticeably lower level of educational attainment for the fathers of two-year college faculty than for the fathers of faculty in all institutions. Specifically, fully half (50.5 percent) of the fathers of two-year college faculty had not completed high school, while 42.7 percent of the fathers of faculty in all institutions were not high school graduates. (A similar pattern was found with regard to "faculty mothers" except that proportions not completing high school were lower both in the cases of two-year and all institution faculties: 40.5 percent versus 36.3 percent.)

Academic and Experiential Background

The master's degree in an academic subject continues to be by a steady margin the predominant academic credential of faculty members in two-year colleges. The faculty member's experiential background, however, has become decreasingly stereotyped, and is now likely to convey a "mixed" profile.

In studying trends in academic credentials of two-year college faculty for the period 1918-19 through 1968-69, Kelley and Connolly (1970) noted that the proportion of two-year college faculty holding the master's degree had doubled in 50 years, increasing from 39 percent in 1918-19 to 78 percent in 1968-69. According to studies summarized by the authors, the proportion of two-year college faculty holding a master's degree has been at least two-thirds since 1953-

54; and according to Monroe (1972), Koos found in 1940-41 that 64 percent of two-year college faculty held a master's degree. Kelley and Connolly's study further indicated that the proportion of two-year college faculty with a doctorate has held fairly steady since 1953-54 at seven to 10 percent, indicating perhaps that the doctorate is not viewed as an academic credential particularly appropriate to the two-year college. The more recent figures of Bayer (1973) are consistent with those reported by Kelley and Connolly, indicating a master's degree for three-quarters of the faculty members of two-year colleges.

Graybeal (1970) also confirmed the predominant position of the master's degree and further noted that for the 1969-70 academic year, more than one-third of the two-year college faculty with master's degrees had at least one additional year of graduate study. Graybeal's "master's-plus-one-year" group, constituting 27.7 percent of the faculty (v. 49.9 percent with master's only), represents a substantial increase over the 20.7 percent reported for the period 1957-1965 by Gleazer (1968) for the same group, and the 21 percent for the "master's-plus-30-hours" group in 1969 reported by Medsker and Tillery (1971). The purpose of this advanced study is not completely clear and may just as well reflect salary schedule provisions for increments of advanced training as it does any desire on the part of the faculty members to sharpen, refresh, or expand their knowledge and skills. Although Nazzaro (1974) found that a large proportion (up to 40 percent) of two-year college psychology instructors with master's degrees were actively working toward a doctorate, the steady (and relatively low) proportion of doctorates within two-year college faculties would seem to discount acquistion of the doctorate as the principal reason for further graduate study; a doctorate is consistent with advancement outside rather than within the two-year college. Burnett (1971) pointed out the danger of the Trojan Horse phenomenon if too many faculty members had the Ph.D. degree; i.e., these faculty become restless with only two years of an undergraduate program to challenge them. They want a baccalaureate program and then hope to transfer the community college into a four-year institution with a graduate program. These patterns and proportions in the levels of academic training are, as reported by Thornton (1970), comparable to those of instructors in four-year colleges and universities.

In addition to specific levels of academic training, two-year college faculty members enter their institutions with a wide range of work experiences that may or may not be directly related to their instructional role. Both the breadth and depth of the experience that the individual faculty member brings with him may vary widely within an institution. In a study of Pennsylvania community college faculty, Patterson (1971) identifed six pre-service career patterns for new faculty, including public school teaching, two-year college teaching, four-year college teaching, graduate study, business and industry, and "other." Patterson found that more than half (54 percent) of the new community college faculty came to their positions with more than one type of pre-service experience; a majority had a "mixed" career pattern.

In their study of a 50-year period, Kelley and Connolly (1970) noted that by the mid-1960's the public schools had been supplanted as the principal supplier of new faculty for the two-year colleges by the graduate schools. For

the period 1965-1967, Kelley and Connolly found that 25 percent of new two-year college faculty came from graduate schools, 20 percent came from high schools, 16 percent came from business and industry, 15 percent came from four-year colleges, and 10 percent came from other two-year colleges.

Other studies, however, do not fully support Kelley and Connolly's conclusion that the graduate school has replaced the public schools as the principal source of supply. Siehr, et al., (1963), Gleazer (1968), and Medsker and Tillery (1971) all placed the public school as the leading source, supplying approximately one-third of all new two-year college faculty, with the graduate schools as the second leading source. (Gleazer did note, however, a reversal of these positions by a substantial margin in Florida.) It is possible that some of the apparent conflict can be attributed to the prevalence of mixed pre-service career patterns among new two-year college faculty, but the clarification of this conflict is not the major issue here; of greater importance is the general validation of Thornton's (1970) statement that the trend is definitely away from public school dominance in the supply of new faculty, with more diverse sources providing significant proportions of new faculty.

An important consideration here might be the broader notion of teaching experience rather than teaching experience of a particular type. By combining the proportions identified by the various authors noted above, it is not misleading to state that half of all new two-year college faculty have some prior teaching experience. The actual percentage of those with prior teaching experience may exceed 50 percent as Bayer (1973) reported that 51 percent of all two-year college faculty had held a teaching assistantship during graduate study. However, Siehr, et al., (1963) found specifically that 75 percent of Michigan community college faculty had *no* pre-service teaching experience; on the other hand, Bender and Breuder (1973) found that only 6.8 percent of all part-time two-year college faculty had *less* than one year of prior teaching experience.

A related element of undetermined importance in the development of two-year college faculty is direct experience as a two-year college student. Two studies by Medsker (1960) and Medsker and Tillery (1971) fixed the proportion of two-year college faculty who have also been two-year college students at approximately one-fourth (27 percent and 28 percent, respectively). In the latter study, Medsker and Tillery noted that eight percent had attended for one year or less and 20 percent had attended for more than one year. In his study of 238 faculty members at three California community colleges, Park (1971) reported that a majority (51 percent) had attended a community college and that 28 percent had earned an associate degree. The importance and influence of this factor have not been seriously assessed.

Faculty Sub-Cultures

The two-year colleges, especially the predominant public institutions, are widely known within American education for the multi-dimensional diversity of their students and the consequently identifiable student sub-cultures. Although the available literature focusing on sub-cultures within the two-year college is scant, it is possible to identify certain structural and functional (and, as will be

noted in succeeding sections, attitudinal) sub-groups within and among such faculties. Several writers have identified differences according to employment status, academic qualifications, pre-service career patterns, "curricular identification," transfer or liberal arts as opposed to terminal or vocational, and age.

As indicated previously, employment status is of major importance in studying and understanding two-year college faculty. Drake (ed., 1975) reported that during the 1974-75 academic year community, junior, and technical colleges in the United States employed a total faculty of 163,775, including 79,540 (or 48.6 percent) on a part-time basis. In a similar report three years earlier, the American Association of Junior Colleges (1972) found a total two-year college faculty of 114,427, with 45,771 (40 percent) employed on a part-time basis. Bender and Breuder (1973) reported somewhat different figures for 1971-72, but the proportions were consistent with the Association's: 122,138 total faculty with 40 percent (48,844) as part-time employees. The authors reported that the part-time faculty proportion represented an increase of two percent (up from 38 percent) over the previous academic year. Bender and Breuder further reported that during 1971-72, 20 percent of all two-year colleges—and approximately 90 percent of those in California—employed more part-time than full-time faculty. From Drake (ed., 1975), it can be determined that the proportion of part-time faculty in all two-year colleges increased by more than 80 percent in the three years from 1971-72 to 1974-75, with the number of part-time faculty exceeding the number of faculty appointed on a full-time basis in 37 percent of the reporting institutions (with equal numbers of part-time and full-time faculty in an additional one percent). In short, the reported increases in part-time faculty account for from two-thirds (from the Association's data) to three-fourths (from Bender and Breuder) of the reported increase in total two-year college faculty. In studying faculty, this distinction takes on added meaning as virtually all of the literature, including studies such as those of Bayer (1970, 1973) which are national in scope, focus and report only on full-time faculty. Bender and Hammons (1972) have accurately characterized this unfortunate situation by describing the part-time, or adjunct faculty as a "forgotten and neglected" yet important constituency of the two-year college. The authors underscored the importance of recognizing the role of the adjunct faculty member in the two-year college with the finding that there is a tendency for such faculty to have a disproportionate share of the part-time students (e.g., in evening classes), a situation they characterize as "the blind leading the blind" (p. 21). However, if researchers have neglected this significant sub-population, the administration of at least one two-year college has been rather dramatically denied such a luxury: according to a recent brief report in *The Chronicle of Higher Education* (1976), salaries and ratios of full-time to part-time faculty were primary issues in a faculty strike that suspended classes for 11,000 students at the Community College of Philadelphia.

With regard to other bases for distinction, Bloom, et al., (1971) identified significant differences in attitudes toward elements of the college environment on the bases of age, level of academic preparation, and curricular identification. Faculty members under 30 years of age were significantly less con-

cerned than all other faculty with traditional academic standards; faculty members holding a doctorate were significantly more negative toward generally accepted community college goals than non-doctorates; and faculty identifying with the transfer-liberal arts curriculum were significantly more negative toward these goals than faculty identifying with the terminal-vocational curriculum. The distinction with respect to age is given some significance for further study by the discovery of Bender and Breuder (1973) that more than 60 percent of the adjunct faculty were under 40, compared to Bayer's (1973) finding that only 37.3 percent of all full-time two-year college faculty were 40 years of age or less.

With respect to differences according to curricular identification, both Wilson and Dollar (1970) and Morrison (1972) reported findings similar to those of Bloom, et al.; and such a distinction was an early observation of Medsker (1960) and Blocker, et al., (1965), both characterizing the differences between "academic" and "applied" faculty as a conflict of "conservative" versus "liberal" educational philosophies. Finally, Patterson (1971) found that faculty with a pre-service career pattern of graduate study held significantly more progressive views toward educational issues than those with pre-service career patterns of public school teaching or business and industry employment, and that the views of those faculty with a four-year teaching career pattern were significantly more progressive than faculty with a business and industry career pattern.

Attitudes and Values

Most of the research specifically focused on two-year college faculty has examined the attitudes of faculty toward their institution and their role in it, their individual values, and their views on educational issues. Although the volume of such research is small compared to research on teaching faculty in other educational institutions, it is nonetheless clear that two-year college faculty are definitely not of one mind on most issues. Many of the distinguishing factors described in the preceding sections are frequently associated with faculty differences in attitudes and values.

A frequently studied relationship has been the attitude of the two-year college faculty member toward the community college as an institution, with the result that most authors support the conclusion of Blocker, et al., (1965) that "it is apparent that there is no consistency between the perceptions of the faculty members and the stated objectives of the two-year colleges" (p. 164).

Bloom, et al., (1971) found that support for the comprehensive community college philosophy* among two-year college faculty in Pennsylvania was at best modest, a posture characterized as "diffuse acceptance" by Thornton (1970), and as "ambivalence" by the authors. The study involved three types of institutions—community colleges, commonwealth (or two-year branch)

*The "comprehensive community college philosophy" is basically an abbreviation of the descriptive definition of the comprehensive community college offered by Fields (1962). In its barest form, this philosophy requires an institutional commitment to (a) democracy of access; (b) comprehensiveness of curriculum; (c) adaptability in programming; (d) a close relationship to the community; and (e) lifelong learning.

campuses of Pennsylvania State University, and private junior colleges; and the authors' predictions that community college faculty, younger faculty, vocational-technical-occupational faculty, and faculty without the doctorate would be most supportive of the community college philosophy were confirmed. The general level of support, however, was quite limited in most respects, with faculty from all three institutional types indicating a level of support only slightly above a neutral point. The most significant differences were found between faculty with and without doctorates, and between faculty identifying with vocational-technical-occupational and liberal arts-transfer curricula. Faculty with doctorates and faculty identifying with liberal arts-transfer curricula were negative toward the community college philosophy and differed significantly from the comparison groups. These findings were highly consistent with those reported much earlier by Medsker (1960), who concluded that the faculty members most likely to support the elements of this philosophy were those in "applied" programs, those with administrative responsibilities, those who preferred teaching in the two-year college, those in public junior colleges rather than extension centers (branch campuses) or private institutions, and those with secondary school teaching experience. Bloom, et al., concluded that "faculty are ambivalent in their support of their institutions . . . where support exists, it is mild" (p. 17).

However, if the contention of Blocker, et al., (1965) that liberal (as opposed to conservative or traditional) attitudes toward educational issues are more in keeping with the community college philosophy, the sub-group distinctions described by Bloom, et al., may require additional refinement in light of the findings of Patterson (1971) in a study previously described. In studying pre-service career patterns and attitudes toward educational issues, Patterson found that two-year college faculty with graduate study and four-year college teaching pre-service career patterns held significantly more progressive or liberal attitudes toward educational issues than faculty with other pre-service career patterns. Also included in Patterson's profile of two-year college faculty with more progressive attitudes were young females with small families, non-Protestants with liberal political views and more highly educated fathers, faculty members teaching in the social sciences and humanities, and faculty in the transfer rather than technical curriculum generally.

Medsker (1960) and Medsker and Tillery (1971) approached this issue from the perspective of faculty preferences and obtained results similar to those noted by Bloom, et al. Specifically, in the earlier study, Medsker found that less than half (46 percent) of two-year college faculty preferred teaching in the two-year college; a majority preferred to teach in an institution of higher education other than the two-year college. It is noteworthy, however, that these preferences varied according to institutional type. Medsker reported, for example, that among faculty at state two-year colleges, 63 percent preferred the two-year college, while only 34 percent of the faculty at college or university (two-year) extension centers preferred the two-year college. Ten years later, Medsker and Tillery (1971) discovered that the earlier proportions had been reversed, with 54 percent of the faculty indicating a preference for the two-year college. Although this ten-year change represents a positive movement for the

two-year colleges, the relative magnitude of the change, in view of the growth and "emergence" of particularly the public two-year colleges during this same period, would seem to support rather than contradict Medsker's (1960) early conclusion: "The responses on preferences do not reflect as high a degree of enthusiasm for the junior college on the part of its professorial staff as would ordinarily be presumed" (p. 176). Consistent with these results, Siehr, et al., (1963), in an intervening study, found that among new community college faculty in Michigan, one-third viewed community college teaching as a career, while one-fourth openly aspired a senior college faculty position. The reasons for this ambivalence, diffuse acceptance, or mild enthusiasm for the two-year college are not clear and are likely the result of a variety of factors. One almost certain factor has been described by Morrison (1972), who concluded that two-year college faculty tend to hold attitudes that fit their perceptions of the attitudes toward the comprehensive community college concept of the group with which they identify: faculty aspiring to a university appointment, for example, view (and accept) the concept as they think a university faculty member would—negatively.

The national faculty surveys of Bayer (1970, 1973), though focused only on full-time faculty, are nonetheless helpful in the description and comparison of faculty attitudes. In his first survey (1969), Bayer found that, compared to faculty in all institutions of higher education, two-year college faculty were more concerned with the emotional growth of students, were more committed to the concept of "open admissions," and more frequently felt that "the institution should be as concerned about students' personal values as it is with their intellectual development" (p. 16). Bayer further found that two-year college faculty were much more favorable than all faculty toward collective bargaining (especially males), equal pay based on equal seniority regardless of type of institution, and more frequently described themselves as politically conservative (Bayer found that in the 1968 President election, faculty at all institutions favored Humphrey over Nixon, 48 percent to 33 percent, while two-year college faculty favored Nixon, 43 percent to 40 percent, largely due to the preference and predominance of male faculty—two-year college faculty females favored Humphrey).

Whether or not indicative of faculty attitudes toward teaching methods, Bayer's 1969 survey did indicate certain differences. Two-year college faculty were nearly twice as likely to utilize machine-aided instruction as faculty at all institutions (27.2 percent versus 14.8 percent), more commonly used frequent quizzes (84.7 percent versus 60.7 percent), and much less frequently used teaching assistants (2.2 percent versus 20.7 percent). Two-year college faculty did not differ from all faculty in the use of term papers and closed-circuit television (56.0 percent and 7.7 percent versus 53.5 percent and 7.1 percent).

In his more recent (1973) survey, Bayer reported similar attitudes and differences. Two-year college faculty again more frequently rated themselves "politically conservative," and again were more favorable toward collective bargaining than faculty at all institutions (two-year college faculty were slightly more favorable in 1973 than they were in 1969, but faculty at all institutions were much more favorable in 1973 than 1969). With respect to teaching goals,

two-year college faculty differed noticeably from all faculty by more frequently characterizing the following goals as "essential" or "very important" in teaching undergraduates: (a) "to develop responsible citizens" (72.4 percent versus 60.4 percent); (b) "to provide the local community with skilled human resources" (64.2 percent versus 49.5 percent); (c) "to achieve deeper levels of student self-understanding" (63.1 percent versus 56.6 percent); (d) "to develop moral character" (55.1 percent versus 48.6 percent); (e) "to provide for the students emotional development" (51.2 percent versus 40.8 percent); and, (f) "to prepare students for family living" (35.4 percent versus 23.0 percent). With respect to each of these goals, female faculty in both two-year colleges and all institutions more frequently rated the particular goal as "essential" or "very important." Also, two-year college faculty less frequently characterized the goals "to develop creative capacities" (70.7 percent versus 76.6 percent) and "to develop ability to pursue research" (22.7 percent versus 39.5 percent) as "essential" or "very important" in teaching undergraduates than faculty in all institutions. While interesting and generally supportive of the community college philosophy, Bayer's findings do not appear to challenge meaningfully the ambivalence reported by Bloom, et al., particularly in light of the attitudes reported for faculty in all institutions.

The issue of personal values among two-year college faculty has largely escaped direct and intensive investigation with the exception of Park (1971). In a thorough study, 238 faculty members at three California community colleges, classified respectively as "Urban College," "Suburban College," and "Rural College," ranked themselves according to their own criteria of priorities on 18 terminal values (defined as "desired end-states of being") and 18 instrumental values (defined as "desired modes of conduct") from Rokeach's Value Survey. The rankings were tabulated for the faculty group as a whole and for the three community colleges with what may be considered less than educationally flattering results. Table 1 summarizes the composite ranking of both terminal and instrumental values for the total faculty group.

Table 1

Composite Terminal and Instrumental Value Rankings
for 238 California Community College Faculty

Terminal Value	Composite Rank	Instrumental Value
Self-respect	1	Honest
Sense of accomplishment	2	Responsible
Freedom	3	Broadminded
Inner harmony	4	Capable
Family security	5	Loving
Wisdom	6	Courageous
Happiness	7	Independent
Mature love	8	Hopeful
True friendship	9	Self-controlled

Exciting life	10	Logical
Equality	11	Intellectual
World at peace	12	Imaginative
Comfortable life	13	Ambitious
World of beauty	14	Forgiving
Social recognition	15	Cheerful
Pleasure	16	Polite
National security	17	Clean
Salvation	18	Obedient

Park's assessment of the data for the total faculty was blunt:

> The composite pattern of terminal values is not that of the "dynamic personality" to which Gordon Allport refers . . . (t)eaching appears to be merely a task or, at best, a means to an end. They do not find it an exciting world. For them teaching means something quite different from the traditional sense of carrying on the civilization . . . (p)atterns found here indicate that the end-existence is now and not in the future. The center of concern is the individual, the "I" or "me" of Carl Rogers (p. 20).

Perhaps it is this concern for self that explains the unusual values evidenced by several community college faculty members in an incident reported in *The Chronicle of Higher Education* (1975). According to the report, four members of the faculty and one member of the staff of Arizona Western College were dismissed for cause in a scheme to collect benefits fraudently under the G.I. Bill. The faculty members, including a Veteran's Counselor, enrolled in their own and each others' courses and claimed standard student benefits. The scheme was uncovered when the name of one of the faculty members appeared on the Dean's List—he had reportedly given himself all "A"s. The FBI was called in to investigate.

In comparing value patterns by institutional types, Park found solid agreement with regard to the lowest ranked terminal and instrumental values: the faculty of each institution ranked the terminal values "Pleasure," "National security," and "Salvation," and the instrumental values "Polite," "Clean," and "Obedient" as the lowest three (though not in uniform order). There was some disagreement, however, with respect to the top-rated values. The instrumental values "Honest" and "Responsible" were among the three highest-rated in each institution, as were the terminal values "Self-respect" and "Sense of accomplishment." Although the terminal value "Freedom" was rated third among all faculty, the faculty of Urban College ranked it sixth and "Family security" first, while faculty at Suburban College and Rural College ranked "Family security" ninth and seventh, respectively. Suburban College and Rural College faculty also differed noticeably from their colleagues at Urban College on the terminal value "Mature love," which they ranked a high fourth and third, respectively, versus a relatively low tie with "World at peace" for twelfth at Urban College. While the terminal value rankings were most distinctive at Urban College, Suburban College was most distinctive with regard to instrumental values. This distinctiveness was most apparent in the rankings of "Loving" and "Self-controlled": Suburban College ranked "Loving" a high second while Urban and Rural Colleges ranked it thirteenth and eleventh

respectively, and "Self-controlled" was ranked a low fourteenth at Suburban but a relatively high fourth among Urban faculty and sixth at Rural. All three colleges ranked the values "Intellectual" (fifteenth at Rural College) and "Imaginative" at or below the mid-point of the priority scale.

In another aspect of his study, Park found several interesting attitudes with respect to educational goals. Suburban College and Rural College were again found to be more like each other than like Urban College: in describing the kind of knowledge students should get from the community college, "knowledge and skills directly applicable to careers" was ranked first by the faculties of both Rural and Urban Colleges, and "self-knowledge and personal identity" was ranked first at Suburban College; however, this latter objective was also ranked second at Rural College but sixth at Urban College.

To "complement" his findings with respect to terminal values of the faculty as a whole, Park also reported at best "mixed" self-rated attitudes toward important educational aspects of the community college. As a group, the faculty rated themselves "above average" in their commitment to students, their knowledge of their subject matter, their willingness to alter their instruction when appropriate, and their ability to communicate with students. However, the faculty also rated themselves as "average" or "below average" in their understanding of the community college philosophy, their knowledge of institutional practices, and their ability to cause student learning. Park further noted that the group of faculty rating themselves "below average" on acceptance of the community college philosophy also ranked the instrumental value "Intellectual" second, while the group of faculty rating themselves "average" or "above average" on acceptance of the community college philosophy ranked "Intellectual" a low tenth. Apparently, at least some community college faculty view as incompatible the community college philosophy and "intellectual" as a desired or desirable mode of conduct.

Faculty Perceptions of the Environment

As indicated by the immediately preceding conjecture, faculty perceptions of their institutional environments are closely related to attitudes and values, a relationship that is undoubtedly reciprocal. The key issues in the two-year college faculty member's perception of his environment are well-summarized in the "representative faculty comment" Garrison (1966) pieced together from his interviews with more than 600 faculty members at 20 two-year institutions:

> The junior college is a unique educational invention. We ought to be finding unique solutions to our problem – not just the patterns established by the four-year colleges, or by the public school systems. This is an administrator's job, basically. It's ours (faculty) too, but the administrators establish the situations we work in (pp. 23-24).

A more contemporary faculty comment might include students and trustees – and fellow faculty – as co-architects of "the situations we work in," and these relationships have been the specific subject of two studies.

Gillo, et al., (1974) studied the perceived and preferred goal priorities of faculty, administrators, and trustees in Washington community colleges and found significant levels of congruence between all groups with respect to both

perceived and preferred goals. The correlations between faculty and administrators were strongest for both perceived and preferred goals, but the correlations between faculty and trustees and administrators and trustees were also significant at the same level of confidence (p less than .01) in each case. The goals which these three community college constituencies agreed were important included open admissions (ranked as the number one perceived goal by all three groups) and general output goals (such as occupational training, transfer programs, adult education programs) among perceived goals, and qualitative development goals, including the improvement of teaching, guidance, and occupational programs, among the preferred goals. All three groups also agreed that *least* important were such goals as increasing the proportion of doctorates on the faculty, increasing the level of involvement of faculty and students in decision-making, and public interest programs. Among the conclusions drawn by Gillo, et al., were that the general notion that community colleges lack clear and consistent goal preferences is not supported, at least in the state of Washington, and that the strong agreement on preferred goals foreshadows a de-emphasis on academic training (transfer) programs, and movement away from the open door concept.

Wilson and Dollar (1970) studied faculty, administrator, and student perceptions of the environment of a mountain state community college as measured on the College and University Environment Scale (C.U.E.S.) and created five groups for comparison: administrators, vocational-technical curriculum faculty, transfer curriculum faculty, vocational-technical curriculum students, and transfer curriculum students. The results reported by the authors provided some interesting partners in perception of the prevailing characteristics of the college's environment. The most dramatic and extensive differences involved transfer faculty and administrators: administrators differed significantly from transfer curriculum faculty on all five environmental characteristics of "Awareness," "Community," "Practicality," "Propriety," and "Scholarship" but differed significantly from vocational-technical curriculum faculty on none of the five measures. Similarly, administrators differed significantly from transfer curriculum students on all but "Propriety" and differed significantly from vocational-technical students only on "Awareness" and "Scholarship." There were no significant differences between transfer faculty and transfer students, but vocational-technical faculty differed singificantly from vocational-technical students on "Awareness," "Community," and "Scholarship." The faculty-faculty and student-student differences were exact reversals: the two faculty groups significantly differed on all measures except "practicality," while the student groups significantly differed only on the "practicality" measure. The study also produced the ironic finding that "Community"—frequently a selling point for the two-year college—was ranked lowest by all groups except administrators who ranked it fourth, or second lowest.

In his comprehensive study of faculty at three California community colleges, Park (1971) obtained results consistent with the conclusions of Garrison and Wilson and Dollar. Park found that faculty agreed that educational policy should be made by faculty, but that personnel policies (a key

element in the work situation) should be made by the administration, although the agreement on the latter was less strong at Suburban College. Park further found that on C.U.E.S., the faculty of all three institutions characterized their college as having a "Practical" atmosphere, more so than any of the four other measures.

Faculty Job Satisfaction and Morale

Like other workers, faculty members are more effective when they are satisfied with their jobs and enjoy a relatively high level of morale. Several studies have investigated both the levels of satisfaction and morale and the mechanics or influencing factors for each.

As noted previously, Medsker (1960), Siehr, et al., (1963), and Medsker and Tillery (1971) have all found that relatively large proportions of two-year college faculty prefer or aspire to teaching positions in four-year colleges and universities, findings which would seem to indicate broad job dissatisfaction among the faculty. Other evidence, however, does not support such a conclusion. While Medsker (1960) found that a majority of two-year college faculty preferred to teach in a four-year college or university, only 11 percent expressed dissatisfaction to any degree with their current position, or with their institution as a place to work. Similarly, more than a decade later, Bayer (1973) found that only 15.2 percent of the full-time, two-year college faculty were dissatisfied with their careers. Unfortunately, only limited information is available to assist in ascertaining what proportions of the remaining 85 percent represent faculty who are satisfied and those who simply are not dissatisfied. Cohen (1974a) has described studies that would indicate that perhaps all of the faculty who are not dissatisfied are indeed satisfied: he reported that 85 percent of Minnesota community college faculty surveyed in 1972 expressed satisfaction and that 95 percent of Florida community college faculty surveyed in 1968 expressed satisfaction with their careers.

In his study, Cohen demonstrated that satisfaction in the college working environment was similar to satisfaction in other working environments. Specifically, he successfully applied the Herzberg Two-Factor theory to the college work environment, a theory which holds that the sources of satisfaction are basically intrinsic while the sources of dissatisfaction are basically extrinsic to the individual. Cohen found that faculty satisfaction was enhanced through increased interaction with students, and most faculty reported gaining satisfaction from doing something with students. Only one-third indicated that their dissatisfaction was associated with students, and most indicated that the source was external. Cohen concluded that community colleges could enhance faculty satisfaction by removing obstacles to faculty-student interaction and suggested that smaller classes and the use of teacher-aides would probably be helpful in this regard.

In a study of faculty morale in the University of Kentucky Community College System, Sanders (1971) identified four factors influencing morale levels which were fairly consistent with Cohen's general findings. Using Richardson's Faculty Attitude Survey, Form Z, with a limited number of additional locally-oriented items, Sanders measured 14 different attitudinal areas with 195

community college faculty. He reduced the 14 attitudinal variables to the following four factors: I—interpersonal relations, personal security, relationship with immediate supervisor, and professional growth and development; II—physical working conditions; III—adequacy of salary and salary schedule; and IV—non-instructional workload. Sanders found that feelings of personal security, the quality of communication with administrators and colleagues, and level of morale were interrelated—those feeling more secure tended to have better communication and thus have higher morale. On the basis of morale scores derived from the Faculty Attitude Survey and self-reports, Sanders identified high, middle, and low morale groups and found that faculty in the high morale group were more frequently satisfied with the communication structure, their relationships with supervisory personnel, their relationships with colleagues, and their opportunities for growth and advancement in the college. Consistent with the results of Cohen's study, Sanders found that Factor I—emphasizing intrinsic factors as compared to Factors II, III, and IV—was most important in distinguishing between the high, middle, and low morale groups, by and large overwhelming the other three factors.

Gloster (1975) provided further evidence of the importance of intrinsic factors in faculty job satisfaction and morale. Gloster analyzed faculty responses to a series of "morale incidents" and checked these responses against a self-rated morale level. As indicated by the responses, the morale incidents most frequently identified with high morale faculty were "I was given a great deal of freedom in the presentation of material to my classes," "The friendliness and cooperativeness of our faculty were of assistance to me in the fulfillment of my responsibilities," and "A good student came to me and commented on how much he was enjoying one of my courses." The incidents least frequently identified with high morale faculty were "The physical limitations of my classroom prevented me from properly utilizing certain instructional techniques" and "Many students expressed more interest in the grade they received rather than the knowledge gained." In addition to supporting the thrust of Cohen's analysis, Gloster's study appears to offer a possible explanation for the association of dissatisfaction with students by one-third of the faculty studied by Cohen. Gloster's results could indicate that insofar as faculty morale is concerned, quality is more important in interactions with students than quantity; that simply increased numbers of interactions are of little value in enhancing faculty morale, and depending on the substance of the interaction, may negatively affect morale.

Faculty Roles

The role of the two-year college faculty member has been approached from several perspectives: what it is in practice, what commentators "outside" the two-year college think it ought to be, and what the two-year college faculty themselves think it is and ought to be. Nazzaro's (1974) study of two-year college psychology instructors identified the five principal elements of the faculty member's role as teaching, counseling, administration, research, and community relations. As expected, teaching and counseling activities accounted for the bulk of the faculty member's time (accounting for 61.7 percent

and 25 percent, respectively); and, according to Nazzaro's report, all five activities account for 115.1 percent of the faculty member's time (although physically and mathematically impossible, this level of time allocation may accurately reflect the thoughts and feelings of many two-year college faculty!). With respect to priorities in these activities, Hamel (1974) is emphatic:

> Teaching is the raison d'être, the célèbre, the primary, the first, and the major responsibility of a faculty member in a community college (p. 80).

The primacy of teaching is unchallenged, but teaching in the two-year college presents a special challenge of its own. Garrison (1966) summarized the faculty member's principal obligation as "to teach 'all kinds' and at a level reputable enough to be called 'higher education' " (p. 16). Beyond teaching, the faculty member's second most important responsibility, counseling and advising students, also presents a special challenge. Cohen (1974b) commented that in addition to advisement, the faculty member had the responsibility of serving as a role model for students, a responsibility earlier characterized by Garrison (1966) as serving as the "mature" upperclassmen on campus.

In describing the role of the two-year college faculty in practice, the findings presented by Bayer (1973) are most helpful. According to his nationwide survey, two-year college faculty have both a heavier and more diversified teaching load than faculty in all institutions. In 1973, half of all full-time two-year college faculty were teaching five or more classes, and three-quarters were teaching four or more classes; by comparison, less than 40 percent of faculty in all institutions were teaching four or more classes. Additionally, one-third of the two-year college faculty were teaching four or more *different* courses, while this was true for only 17 percent of all faculty. Bayer further reported that 45 percent of the two-year college faculty spent one to four hours per week in advising and counseling students, and 31 percent spent five to eight hours weekly, proportions which were only slightly higher than those for all faculty. Finally, Bayer found that two-year college faculty spent less time per week in administrative and research activities than faculty in all institutions. Half of the two-year college faculty spent no time on administrative responsibilities, and three-quarters spent four hours or less per week. Among faculty in all institutions, 37 percent spent no time on administrative responsibilites, and less than two-thirds spent four hours per week or less. With regard to research and scholarly writing, Bayer reported that nearly 60 percent of the two-year college faculty spent no time on these activities, and that 85 percent spent four hours per week or less. Among faculty in all institutions, on the other hand, only one-third spent no time on research and scholarly writing, and more than 40 percent spent *more* than five hours per week on such activities.

It is this last area—research—that has often been the focus of comment by on-lookers. Community college faculty have been criticized both for their failure to conduct sufficient research and for the nature of the research that they do conduct. In this regard, Blocker, et al., (1965) reported on a study of Oklahoma colleges and faculties. In this study, community college faculties were most frequently criticized by university professors for not engaging in research and for not writing sufficient articles, books, and monographs.

Kellams (1974) was critical of the inclination of two-year college faculty to focus the research they did conduct on the teaching of their subject matter and on teaching in general. This criticism was offered with a constructive intent, however, as Kellams suggested that two-year college faculty could most appropriately (and therefore should) conduct field research, involving students whenever possible as a useful learning experience. Whether or not such critical comments are offered with constructive intent, it seems important to include in any consideration of the adequacy of research by two-year college faculty Cohen's (1971) observation that "By the nature of his position, the junior college instructor holds a dual disciplinary membership; he is affiliated with both his subject field and with the discipline of instruction" (p. 42).

The study of Washington community college faculty, administrators, and trustees by Gillo, et al., (1974) provides some clarification of the faculty member's own perception of his role. With respect to faculty role, the substantial goal congruence among the three constituencies is less important than the substance of the preferred goals. The faculty as a group were most supportive of general qualitative development goals, such as improvement in teaching, guidance, and occupational programs, as the preferred direction for their institutions. The faculty were least supportive of such goals as increasing the proportion of Ph.D.'s on the faculty and more numerous or extensive public interest programs. Gillo, et al., concluded that the basic implication of their results was a substantial commitment among faculty to quality teaching in the community colleges.

In his study of faculty roles, Morrison (1972) considered conflicts in role orientations, specifically the relatively common assumption that subject matter-centered and student-centered faculty role orientations were significantly influenced by expectations, attitudes, general information, and perceived expectations. It was Morrison's conclusion that in an appropriate institutional context for the community college, subject matter-centered and student-centered faculty role orientations could peacefully and productively coexist. On the basis of his findings he questioned the uni-dimensional concept of faculty role orientation and suggested that these roles might represent two relatively independent dimensions.

Finally, the results of Park's (1971) comprehensive analysis of faculty values provide a disconcerting summary assessment of the faculty member's perception of his role. With respect to the principal element of the two-year college faculty's role, Park concluded that "Teaching appears to be merely a task or, at best, a means to an end" (p. 20).

Faculty Problems, Concerns, and Issues

Faculty members in all types of institutions of higher education see problems in their institutions and in the roles that they play. Two-year college faculty are no exception and according to most writers, there is general agreement among the faculty as to what the major problems are.

Siehr, et al., (1963), Blocker, et al., (1965), Garrison (1966), and Park (1971) have all identified common problems; and the leading problems viewed by the faculty have been summarized by Park as insufficient time for scholarly

study, adapting instruction to individual differences, dealing with students who require special attention to overcome deficiencies, and other special problems. Siehr, et al., also found that for many two-year college faculty such problems as understanding college policies concerning curriculum development and revision, acquiring adequate secretarial help, understanding college policies concerning teaching loads, challenging superior students, obtaining needed instructional materials, and grading student work were matters of serious concern. On the basic of his extensive interviews with individual two-year college faculty members, Garrison best summarized the specific problems noted above as contributors to an overall and top-priority problem of insufficient time to pursue meaningfully the substantial and varied responsibilities of the job.

The specific problems seen by the faculty collectively contribute to broader and longer-term faculty concerns with the future of their institutions and careers. In the literature several such concerns are readily apparent. Foremost among these concerns is the issue of faculty professional development or refreshment. From the perspective of the individual faculty member, the crucial elements of this concern have been best summarized by Garrison (1966), who reported a composite faculty comment that the intellectual capital of the faculty was being expended more rapidly than it could be replaced. Garrison added that this situation was further complicated by the realistic fact of the two-year college faculty member's active involvement in both his academic field and the discipline of teaching, and by such additional problems as the lack of time, financial and institutional support, and appropriate opportunities or programs. It is apparent, however, that this concern is not being totally ignored. Gleazer (1968) reported that the Florida legislature had enacted legislation requiring that three percent of the amount designated for faculty salaries in state-supported community colleges be set aside and used for faculty development, and Semas (1975) has noted that the community colleges have provided the substantive leadership in the resurgence of the faculty development movement.

A second important concern is the general area of faculty-administration relationships and the general administrative context of the institution. Several writers (Medsker, 1960; Garrison, 1966; Thornton, 1970; Medsker and Tillery, 1971; Monroe, 1972) have commented on the conflicting pressures of the public school legacy of the community colleges, with its consequent early influence on the administrative context of the new institution and the often directing influence of the senior colleges on course content and curricula. As summarized by Garrison (1966), the principal elements of this concern center on organizational and operational flexibility appropriate to the special characteristics of the two-year college and an appropriate level of faculty involvement in decisions affecting them as professionals. According to Garrison, two-year college faculty, who recognize that "the administrators establish the situations we work in" (p. 24), are fearful that in response to the pressures from both "above" and "below," the increasing size of the institution, and the growing need for administrative convenience, their administrators and institutions will come to be dominated by "the Standard Academic Mind" (p. 21), thus bowing to external rigidities rather than promoting institutional determination.

A final, narrower faculty concern, but one which may hold extremely important implications for the future of the two-year college, has been identified by Gillo, et al., (1974). In this study of perceived and preferred institutional goals among community college faculty, administrators, and trustees, the author found that the faculty (as well as administrators and trustees) agreed that a commitment to "open admissions" was the leading actual (or perceived) goal of their institutions, but that in terms of preferences, faculty (and administrators and trustees) agreed that this institutional goal should be of a lower priority, subordinated to goals of qualitative development in such areas as teaching and inter-departmental communication. Such preferences do not appear to be consistent with the historically well-cultivated public expectation of open access and institutional accommodation and may be an early indication of a major obstacle in the continuing development of the public two-year college.

Conclusions and Directions

The original purpose of this paper was to identify, organize, and describe available information relative to the faculty of two-year institutions in order to facilitate the development of an accurate and useful description of this important population in American higher education. In certain respects this purpose has been achieved: a number of relevant research studies, general analyses, sources of data, and commentaries have been identified and described; a reasonable although probably less than desirable form of organization has been applied to differentiate major considerations; and, certain descriptive characteristics have been identified and explained.

With respect to the larger purpose of facilitating the development of an accurate and useful description of the two-year college faculty, some progress can be claimed, although realistically it must be characterized as progress of an indirect sort. In this respect, the observations, findings, and conclusions described in the preceding summaries are not to define and describe but rather to stimulate and direct further study. Taken as a whole, the studies, analyses, and commentaries cited illustrate the breadth of the issue and imply, but explore only in a preliminary manner, the issue's substantial depth. In brief, efforts to date have been more successful in describing the area to be studied than in effectively studying it; what is known is limited both in substance and scope, while what is not known and must be discovered is extensive and clearly complex.

It is perhaps this complexity that holds the most promise for further study of the two-year college faculty, as whether intended or not, the studies conducted to date have (effectively) noted several important related and influential factors beyond the faculty itself. The most important of such factors must certainly be the two-year college itself, both as an individual institution and as a conceptual form in American higher education. The pervasiveness of the relationship between faculty and institution has been indicated by Cohen and Brawer (1972) who stated that

> The college affects its people . . . (b)ut mostly it concerns the faculty in an institution that has no other valid reason for being except to teach, the faculty in fact *becomes* the institution (p. 11).

The appropriate direction for further study, then, would appear to be the relationship between, and the mutual influence of, the faculties and faculty members and their institutions and institutional environments. Of what import are such institutional characteristics and policies as public and private control? Open admissions? Academic freedom and tenure? Salary schedules and fringe benefits? How important is the status and acceptance of the two-year college within American higher education generally?

Several of the writers who have studied the two-year college and its faculty have underscored the importance of these relationships in understanding both the faculty and the institution. Cohen and Brawer (1972) commented:

> (T)he junior college instructor, operating somewhere between the secondary teacher and the university professor, is in a particularly ambivalent position . . . (h)e stands uneasily between two levels of education and has yet to carve out a defined place for himself (p. 12).

Also speaking primarily of faculty, but with apparent understanding of the institutional context, Garrison (1966) observed:

> It is plain that junior college faculty have yet to attain full professional identity or status. Their position in higher education is unclear, and it will take a number of years to evolve (p. 76).

Finally, the concluding questions raised by Park (1971) in his study of faculty values make clear both the compound complexity and the importance of these relationships:

> Does the junior college, (being neither fish nor fowl in higher education) paying good salaries and attempting to be all things to all men, corrupt the value-orientations of the teachers and administrators? Do staff members in the junior college already have these value-orientations when they become teachers, or does the institution nourish them (p. 50)?

Further study along these lines clearly will be neither easy nor particularly quick to "pay off"; however, it does seem reasonable to suggest that the ultimate results of such an approach will be immensely valuable and possibly unobtainable by any simpler or more convenient means.

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THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE AND ITS ROLE IN ALLIED HEALTH EDUCATION

Christine Dubay

The community and junior colleges are assuming a progressively greater role in the training of sub-baccalaureate level allied health workers than ever before (Dolfman, 1974). To all appearances, the very qualities and characteristics that make the community college a unique and increasingly vital force in American higher education today also make it the agent best able to meet health manpower needs in the 1970's.

This unusual character of the community college is derived from the philosophy underlying Fields' (1962) model: it is a democratic institution, ideally offering accessibility to everyone, including members of lower socio-economic groups and the educational disadvantaged. The comprehensive community college is a multi-function institution. It offers programs in technical and vocational fields, preparation for college transfer, adult education, and community services. (Only a minority of community colleges are truly comprehensive; most offer some aspects of these services but not all of them.) A community college should be committed to providing needed educational, social, and cultural services to the community. An expanding role is that of providing lifelong learning in the form of adult education, presented in a variety of topics, schedules, and settings. Finally, the community college has the ability to adapt itself to new ideas and trends, to the changing needs of the community.

When Fields formulated this philosophy for the community college, the concept of "allied health" as it is known today did not yet exist. But, to many who are concerned with the education of health care personnel for needs today and in the future, the community college seems ideally suited to the task. Because the community college is a dynamic, versatile institution and sensitive to contemporary needs, it seems the best hope for initiating and bringing about needed changes in the preparation of health professionals and in their relationships with one another.

The people of the United States increasingly look upon adequate health care as a right that should be available to all, regardless of means (Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, 1970). The pursuit of this goal has created a need for thousands of additional health workers each year, the greatest need

being for supportive personnel performing functions at a level that does not require a baccalaureate degree (Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, 1973). Allied health needs what the community college can uniquely provide: open-ended general education essential for students' freedom of choice among health careers; short-term training that leads directly into the job market; ready adaptability and innovation in adjusting to new and changing health manpower needs in the community; the possibility of improving health care among minorities and the disadvantaged through accessibility of educational programs for these groups; and programs designed specifically for adults and their special needs.

The public shows an increasing tendency to question the allegation that success in life necessitates a baccalaureate degree. Society is beginning to recognize that there are any number of satisfying and financially rewarding occupations that do not require four years of college. Combine with this trend the increasing costs and competitiveness that characterize four-year institutions, and the community college becomes an inviting alternative to students, parents and employers (Bushnell, 1973).

History

The health related occupations originated somewhat haphazardly. Usually, a new health profession grew out of a practical need which was filled by an unskilled worker after some on-the-job training in an apprenticeship type of arrangement (McTernan, 1972). Even the education of physicians still consisted of an observe-and-imitate process as late as the turn of the century.

After doctors, nurses were the health professionals most needed. Consequently, it was in the nursing field that education for the health occupations at the vocational and technical level began. Around 1900, the first "practical nurses" were prepared by involving them in a variety of unstructured activities in the hospital setting (Holloway and Kerr, 1969). The development of other health fields paralleled this; i.e., on-the-job training of supportive workers to perform routine tasks, thereby freeing nurses and physicians for more specialized duties. These workers gradually rose to the technical or subprofessional level.

Eventually, formal hospital schools were developed for the training of these emerging supportive professions. Each profession, independent of and separate from one another, set up its own schools. And so, for all practical purposes, the health professions remain today.

As these new health professions matured, assuming more of the responsibility for health care, the amount of theoretical and practical knowledge increased. It soon became apparent that transmission of this knowledge could best be accomplished in educational institutions (McTernan, 1972).

The Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 created the means for bringing occupational education into the community college by providing funds for trade and industrial education. This enabling legislation, along with critical economic needs of the Great Depression, helped stimulate the development of the comprehensive community college (Medsker and Tillery, 1971). By 1940, however, there were only about 200,000 full-time students enrolled in com-

munity colleges. Allied health education in these institutions remained more academic than vocational through World War II.

In the 1950's, nursing recognized the potential of the community college, and by 1970 there were nearly 400 associate degree nursing programs. At the same time, dental assistant programs were also developed. Other health professions have more recently called upon the community college for training, resulting in a significant growth in associate degree allied health programs (Connelly, 1972).

In the mid-1960's, the literature of the American Association of Junior Colleges (now the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges), began to stress the preparation of health manpower in the community colleges. A 1968 survey of 439 non-urban junior colleges indicated that 60 percent were offering health education programs, with an average student enrollment of 45 (Connelly, 1972). A survey by Smith of Brigham Young University revealed that 17.2 percent of all occupational programs offered by 511 colleges in 1957 were in the health related fields (Connelly, 1972). By 1970, there were 1,388 associate degree programs in health care occupations, and by November of that year an additional 916 were planned (Connelly, 1972). Finally, the AAJC, through a study sponsored by the Bureau of Health Manpower, found that allied health graduates from community colleges increased from about 5,000 in 1960 to over 34,000 in 1970 (Bushnell, 1973).

Clearly, the community college has responded admirably to health manpower programs, which arose from the ever-increasing demand for medical services, and resulted in legislation in the 1960s, including the establishment of Medicare and Medicaid. The Vocational Education Act of 1963 alloted 20 percent of federal funding of vocational education to the community colleges, giving an indirect boost to allied health education (Monroe, 1972).

According to Hatch and Kress (1972), several other pieces of legislation contributed significantly to the growth of allied health education in the community college. These include the Health Professions Educational Assistance Act of 1963, the Allied Health Professions Personnel Training Act of 1966, and the Health Manpower Act of 1968 (an amended version of the 1966 Act).

The magnitude of the community college role in training allied health personnel is also illustrated by a comparison of growth of federally funded health education training centers in junior and senior colleges which was supplied through the Allied Health Act between 1967 and 1970:

Training Centers	*Number increase*	*Percent increase*
Senior College	80 (From 164 to 277)	37.7
Junior college	47 (from 28 to 75)	165.0

In 1970, the number of funded associate degree curricula increased by 141 percent, from 102 to 248, while funded baccalaureate curricula increased from 349 to 469, an increase of only 31.5 percent (Connelly, 1972).

The degree of the community college commitment to allied health education is unmistakable. Moreover, this fact, combined with the very nature of the community college, as dictated by its philosophy, goals, and purposes, imparts to it the potential to become the single most important influence in the future of allied health education.

Present Status

The reasons for the continuing demand for health care workers include such basic realities as population growth and such concepts as social equality and justice for everyone, regardless of means. Most authors agree that the demand for increased numbers of allied health personnel will be sustained.

The Carnegie Commission on Higher Education (1973) indicated an anticipated increase in employment of allied health personnel of more than 400,000 between 1967 and 1980, with the majority of these requiring less than a baccalaureate degree.

The sub-baccalaureate level allied health programs in the community colleges are numerous and diverse. The types of programs vary from area to area, as they should if each college is fulfilling its mandate of sensitivity to community needs. For the same reason, the types of programs within a given community college will most likely vary over a period of time. The number of different allied health programs within an institution will depend a great deal on its size and location. A comprehensive community college will most likely have facilities, faculty, and funding that enable it to include several health fields in its curriculum, whereas a smaller urban or a rural college may well have difficulty carrying even a single program.

Commonly offered programs include those in dental laboratory, medical laboratory, radiology (x-ray), respiratory therapy, and operating room technologies, as well as programs for training of dental assistants, dental hygienists, medical laboratory assistants, and others.

In the University of Kentucky Community College System, Jefferson Community College, a comprehensive institution, lists five allied health programs in its curriculum, including associate degree nursing, which is offered by 10 of the 12 community colleges in the system. (Lexington Technical Institute, a part of the System, is not included in the data presented here.) Four colleges offer training for medical laboratory technicians, making this the second largest allied health training field in the system. In all, 11 of the 12 units offer at least one allied health technical program in their curricula and together offer a total of 22 programs (Piekarski, 1976).

Innovation and adaptability may well be the cornerstones of the community college, particularly so in the present economic crisis. Now, more than at any other time in this decade, the cost of setting up a given technical program at each community college is prohibitive, if not impossible. In more rural areas with stable populations, it is also impractical, since the need for specific manpower is sooner or later filled, and the program no longer needed.

According to Piekarski (1976), Coordinator of Program Planning for the University of Kentucky Community College System, the UKCCS has undertaken a unique enterprise in answer to these problems. A mobile program in

associate degree dental hygiene is in its first year of operation at Ashland Community College. When that area's need for dental hygienists has been realized, the program will move on to another community college where there is a perceived need and repeat the process.

Another aspect of allied health education in the UKCCS is participation in the University's "two-plus-two" programs; i.e., the community colleges offer college transfer curricula specifically designed to allow the student to take the associate degree, and, with one year of experience after the A.D., enter the University for two more years to obtain a Bachelor of Health Science Degree (Piekarski, 1976).

One other example of what is being done in community college allied health programs is that of New York City Community College, which has an Allied Health Learning Center that includes 1800 students, 180 faculty members, and seven allied health career departments. Most of the students are from minority groups living in the vicinity of the college, who have limited reading and study skills and a high school average of 70-75 percent. The Center has established educational programs to deal with these circumstances and utilizes a team of content faculty, specialists in learning methodology, and a media production staff. The health career training offered by the center includes dental hygiene, ophthalmic dispensing, biological science/medical laboratory, nursing, radiologic technology, and chemistry/pre-pharmacy (Tuosto and Beitler, 1975).

Historically, the training of allied health personnel was conducted in hospitals, and today the majority of programs are still located in health care facilities (McCarthy, 1975). However, in recent years, the trend has been to move allied health education programs into educational institutions, especially community colleges. For example, over a recent five-year period, 25 percent of allied health education programs established in Pennsylvania were placed in community colleges (Dolfman, 1974). The result is that the hospital is now an affiliate which supplies the clinical training in a program sponsored by the academic institution.

Statistics on programs approved by the American Medical Association indicated that, in 1973-74, the number of AMA-sponsored programs in community colleges increased by 20.2 percent, whereas the number of hospital/clinic based programs dropped 6.5 percent. During the same time, the number of programs in colleges and universities increased by 7.3 percent. In 1973, community colleges were responsible for 13 percent of all AMA-approved allied health programs (McCarthy, 1975).[1]

A major reason for the shift from health care facilities to community colleges is the significantly lower cost of training in an educational institution.

[1] Any three sources will yield three different listings of "allied health occupations". Some include all health related occupations, from psychologist to music therapist. In contrast, the AMA lists 25 allied health "professions." McTernan (1972) refers to 125 "primary" and 250 "secondary" health occupations. In researching the allied health data, it was in possible, in most cases, to determine how broadly or narrowly each author defined the term. The general trend seems to be toward a broader application, to include McTernan's "secondary" category. Consequently, the reader will find such terms as "health care workers" and "health manpower" used interchangeably, as indication that the scope of the community college's involvement in allied health education is not limited to the original allied health profession.

In addition, the academic nature of the community college equips it to provide better teaching and more formalized instruction than can be provided in hospital based programs (Cosand, 1964). However, a much more important argument for collaboration between academic institution and hospital is that these community college graduates are proving very able in their jobs (Light, 1975). More and more, employers are coming to accept personnel trained at the associate degree level. In fact, some employers prefer to hire associate degree workers, with their specific technical competencies, rather than persons with baccalaureate degrees (Piekarski, 1976). (This point also calls into question the emphasis on obtaining a baccalaureate degree more to get the job than as a guarantee of competency to do the work.)

Finally, an important cause of the shift to academic institutions is related, especially, to the nature of the community college, i.e., the increased accessibility of these programs, both geographically and in terms of educational opportunities and options.

The philosophy, goals, and purposes of the community college seem to have been tailored specifically to meet the needs of allied health education. Since most of the need for new health services personnel is at the sub-baccalaureate level, this institution is the logical choice for supplying such workers.

As a democratic institution, ideally providing access to minorities and disadvantaged segments of the population, the community college is in the best position to take the lead in attempting to alter the disproportionately small representation of blacks and other minorities in health careers. Inadequate health care constitutes a major problem among blacks in this country, but non-whites make up less than three percent of all students in allied health (Adams and Grant, 1974). Adding to the difficulties surrounding the recruitment and attrition rates of these groups in higher education in general is the finding that, in contrast to the current trend among college-age youth, most educationally disadvantaged racial and ethnic minorities are disinclined to pursue vocational/technical courses of study (Medsker and Tillery, 1971).

The provision for vocational education, adult education, and community services also makes the community college the best qualified institution to attempt to alleviate local shortages of health care workers.

One of the reasons for health manpower shortages has been shown to be not so much a deficiency in absolute numbers as a maldistribution of workers geographically (Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, 1973). Hall (1974) stated that the area of rural health needs is being neglected:

> With public awareness of health problems in Appalachia came the discovery that these problems are also present in most rural areas of the United States, especially in the Missouri River drainage basin including North and South Dakota, Montana, Wyoming, portions of Nebraska, Colorado, and Kansas. Health needs have traditionally received more response in urban areas with high density populations, relatively easy access to large facilities, and the associated professions drawn to these large facilities (p. 26).

Contrast with this pattern the findings of investigators concerning the reluctance to leave home, which seems to characterize sub-baccalaureate level allied health personnel. The overwhelming tendency of these workers is to seek

employment either near their homes or in the area where they received their occupational education. Studies in Iowa and Illinois indicated that licensed practical nurses in those states remained either in the location where they were born or in the same geographical area where their practical nursing education was obtained (Holloway and Kerr, 1969). Dolfman (1974) found that over one-third of sub-baccalaureate level students in a Pennsylvania survey said they would leave the allied health field if they were unable to find employment in the geographic area of their choice.

It seems that the rural and regional community colleges are in a position to turn this characteristic to good advantage in helping to fill the health care needs of the community, while perhaps helping individuals to realize personal aspirations and goals. Since most rural colleges, especially, are too small to be truly comprehensive colleges, they may not have access to the funds, facilities, and faculty necessary for a full-blown allied health technical education curriculum.

However, one small area of the country has come up with a system designed to keep rural health care workers at home. Lawrence County, Alabama, has a population of 27,000. The area's provisions for medical/health care include: five full-time physicians, two dentists, a small county health service with medical services one day a week, and two hospitals with a total of 107 beds. The infant mortality and death rates are higher than those for Alabama or the United States. The county's attempt to alleviate these problems is embodied in the Regional Technical Institute/Community College Linkage Programs. Area students in allied health take their first year of general studies, with specific courses directed toward the student's health career choice, at their local community college. The second year of technical training is obtained at RTI. After completion of their programs, the majority of the students return to their home towns, or nearby, to work. Directors of the program felt that the opportunity for the student to stay at home for a year, making it necessary to go away to school for only one year, definitely contributed to his going back home to work. Thus, even though these rural community colleges could not provide complete, two-year programs, their participation in the linkage system helped keep badly needed health care workers at home (Corley and Elder, Jr., 1974).

In summary, although there is a shortage of health manpower in the rural areas of this country, there is also the potential manpower in these areas if someone can provide the training. If rural and regional community colleges could provide the necessary education in needed health fields, several benefits would accrue. The most obvious one is an increase in health care personnel in the community, resulting in better health care for the population. A secondary advantage would be more satisfied workers because they are doing what they want to do, where they want to do it. Finally, since satisfied people perform their jobs more efficiently, the quality of the health care being provided would get an additional boost.

The lack of career mobility, especially among sub-baccalaureate level personnel, is of major concern in allied health today. For the most part, the individual educational programs for the different health occupations have been conducted separately from one another. Essentially, when the student chooses

one health career, he is shut off from all others, unless he is willing to start over again in another course of study, repeating some material he has already learned from previous experience or training (Joiner and Blayney, 1974).

Both McTernan (1972) and Perry (1970) suggested concentrating on the similarities that exist in educational programs and developing a core curriculum which would facilitate horizontal mobility. With this type of program, for instance, the same chemistry or microbiology course could be taken by students from associate degree nursing, dental hygiene, and physician assistant programs (Gilliland, 1974). With a common background to several health careers, the student who changes his mind after exposure to other health fields can switch programs with only a minimal loss of time. The experience and ability of the community college in adaptation and innovation, in occupational education, and in career guidance and counseling make it much better qualified than four-year institutions to promote the career mobility of allied health workers.

The ideal concept of vertical mobility was stated by Rosenfeld (1972): "It should be possible for one to enter into an area of health service at a level of function commensurate with his education, serve the community, and concurrently or subsequently, acquire more knowledge and experience, thus moving on to the next level of function" (p. 15).

At present, there are, in almost every health field, dead-end jobs which provide little opportunity for advancement in responsibility, salary, or initiative (Perry, 1970). These jobs contribute to the high turnover rate that characterizes the health professions and to the health manpower shortages, both total and geographical.

McTernan (1972) suggested the improvement of vertical mobility through the restructuring of the educational system to establish a series of levels of learning to be attained by those who are competent and motivated. In this way, each person would be able to progress to his or her own intellectual or technical limits.

The provision of these types of educational opportunities has significant implications for adult education, one of the fastest growing facets of the comprehensive community college. In order to make such programs practically accessible to health care personnel, educational institutions must employ the non-traditional techniques unique to continuing education and especially to the community college.

In addition, the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education (1970) indicated that, due to the high rate of advance in knowledge and technology, significant expansion of continuing education programs for health workers would be requisite to the provision of optimum health care. As technological advances occasion changes in the degree or type of skills and knowledge needed in a given health field, the community college has the ability to adapt and to supply additional training, both within a practicable time period.

Among other segments of the population that can make use of the community college continuing and adult education services are individuals seeking a career change and women who have suspended their careers in allied health to raise families. Holloway and Kerr (1969) attributed the shortage of nursing

personnel, in part, to the large numbers of inactive nurses. Since the majority of personnel in allied health are women (Dolfman, 1974), this finding undoubtedly applies to all fields. The role that the community college can take in enabling this valuable source of manpower to re-enter the health care job market is clear. The unconventional means and methods that adult education and community service programs require—courses conducted in more convenient off-campus locations during evenings, weekends, and off-season and for varying lengths of time—are contingencies that the community college, especially the comprehensive community college, is competent to handle (Monroe, 1972).

Guidance and counseling are functions essential to the unique character of the community college. The potential of this institution for guidance and counseling in allied health has not been realized. Bushnell (1973) indicated that the community college student gains little from what counseling programs are available to him. The scope of counseling services should include such items as dissemination of information and assisting students in making career choices (Monroe, 1972). A United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare report (1967) indicated a need to project a true picture of the health professions and the related requirements for ability and education, and a need to provide counseling that will direct applicants into educational programs appropriate for their interests and abilities. A great deal of the dissatisfaction of many health care workers today appears to be due to poor career choices. Assisting students to choose their careers wisely will help also to diminish the economic loss resulting from the loss of productivity due to worker dissatisfaction (Gilliland, 1974).

Obviously, career counselors in the community college should be knowledgeable about the allied health career choices, but they face numerous problems in keeping abreast of these fields. For example, in medical technology, there are programs which do involve obtaining a baccalaureate degree and those which do not. Such variables as these, along with the changes involved in the rapid increase in the numbers of health fields, present definite problems to those responsible for helping students choose health careers (Holloway and Kerr, 1969).

Developments for the Future

The enrollment future looks good for the community college despite, or even because of, significant changes occurring in society and in higher education. The total enrollment in higher education is predicted to increase at a much slower rate through 1980 (enrollments doubled in the Sixties), remain stable between 1980 and 1990, and increase by one-third in the 1990's (Bushnell, 1973). One reason for this pattern is the declining number of traditional college-age students. But more important for the community college is the lessening of the public's interest in traditional college education and an increasing demand for career education.

The outlook for jobs requiring associate degrees remains favorable. The Bureau of Labor Statistics referred to findings that indicate associate degree

holders find employment faster, get better wages, and are promoted more quickly than graduates of high school or vocational school programs (Bushnell, 1973).

The labor force will continue to grow, as indicated by a predicted influx of 41 million workers between 1968 and 1980. The majority of these are young people seeking their first jobs, while nearly 14 percent are women who reared their children before starting a second career. For the most part, those wishing to qualify for the more desirable, better-paying jobs will need training at a post-secondary level. Others, already in the labor force, will endeavor to better their positions through upgrading of knowledge and skills. Still another segment of the labor force requiring retraining are those seeking to exchange one career for another (Bushnell, 1973).

The future of the community college seems assured. This institution is specifically designed to serve the unique needs that characterize the potential clientele of the 1980's. The increasing numbers of adults seeking to enter the job market, change careers, or advance their positions will necessitate an aggressive response by the community college. It seems possible that the community college may well outstrip the four-year institution in impact and importance in our society over the coming decades.

Similarly, there is no doubt that the health "industry" will continue to expand, for a number of reasons. Consider, for instance, the increase in population, particularly the older population as the nation's declining birthrate shifts the age distribution upwards. Secondly, the effort to provide adequate and improved health care to everyone will continue, accompanied by an increasing number of individuals desiring to serve in the "helping" professions.

Scientific and technological advances in medicine may reasonably be expected to continue, the extent determined by funding. These advances may easily lead to new and/or different roles for allied health.

The predicted 1980 demand for technicians in the health services, engineering, and science represents a 61 percent increase over 1968 levels. For example, the need for dental hygienists, one of the fastest-growing allied health professions, is expected to increase by 109 percent during this same period, affording 2,400 new jobs each year (Bushnell, 1973).

As to the future of allied health education in the community college, there are certainly questions to be considered, not the least of which is the effect of the present economic crisis on the community college. While four-year colleges and universities appear to be affected the most by the cutback in funds, the community college has by no means escaped attention. Perhaps the most serious consequence of the money crunch is the abandonment of open admissions in many institutions (Wygal, 1975).

The implications for the socially, economically, and educationally disadvantaged are manifest. The blow to personal goals and aspirations certain to be experienced by these individuals and the consequent loss of potential for improving health care among these groups surely are untenable. If the outlook for non-selective admissions is truly as bleak as it appears to be, it seems that a reordering of our priorities is warranted. Perhaps, because of its philosophy and goals, the community college itself will find a solution.

Another circumstance that may affect the community college's role in allied health education is the tendency on the part of health professional organizations to insist on more and more education in order for individuals working in these fields to qualify for credentials, at whatever level of competency. Should this trend persist, there may come a time when these educational requirements go beyond the scope of the community college, and it may be obliged to withdraw from its present extensive role in health careers education.

However, the community college is in a position to preclude this possibility, at the same time promoting a very desirable event among the health fields: interaction and cooperation. The Carnegie Commission on Higher Education (1973) recommended development of a core curriculum – emphasis on basic programs of education in the health sciences – to serve students from several allied health fields. This concept is supported by leaders in health education and those concerned with the prevailing isolationism – exclusivity, if you will – among individual branches of the health care professions.

The core concept would facilitate career mobility and ease the accrediting requirements, while helping to alleviate geographical manpower shortages. The sharing of common experiences by students in core programs will also help advance the health team concept by allowing opportunity for a new understanding of and a cooperative relationship among members of complementary health professions. The comprehensive, efficient, and even preventive health care that can result from this phenomenon benefits everyone.

It is to the community college that allied health must look for its future. Through the ability of the community college to innovate and experiment and through its extensive involvement, present and anticipated, in allied health education, it has the potential to influence and direct the future of health care. The community college is the instrument by which health care in this country can become truly a right, not just a privilege.

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ARTICULATION

Ben W. Carr, Jr.

While numerous journal articles, books, and speeches have been written on the subject of articulation, few have dealt with all aspects of community college articulation activites. Coordination among a college, its constituent parts, and its counterparts in the career ladder, is probably the most neglected aspect of the American educational system. According to Menacker (1975), the recent emergence of the community college as a bonafide member of this system has given articulation a rebirth, and this new drive must be properly directed if students are to be served as they move up, down, and across the educational strata of our diversified system. The purpose of this paper is to examine articulation needs, purposes, and methods for the community college. While many of the topics discussed will apply to most two-year and four-year institutions, some are peculiar to the community college due to its unique relationships with high schools, senior colleges, industry, and the community.

The Meaning and Purpose of Articulation

According to Kintzer (1970), articulation consists, in its broadest sense, of "the interrelationships between schools and colleges, quasi-educational institutions, and other community organizations—all activities that affect the movement of students" (p. 2).

Considering education as a continuum that transcends organizational units, the primary focus of articulation is on improving the transition of students through the administrative divisions of the educational system, ancillary organizations, and activities. The essence of this type of coordination is found in the joint efforts of individuals and institutions across a wide spectrum of activities—whether formal or informal, sponsored or voluntary. These endeavors facilitate the transition or transfer of students from one level of the system to another or laterally at the same level.

Many writers limit their coverage of articulation to one of two approaches: (1) the transition from high-school to post-secondary educational institutions, or (2) the transfer from a junior, or two-year, institution to a senior, or four-year, institution. Menacker (1969) viewed formal education as a continuous process beginning with the student's first day of elementary school through the highest level that the student's ability can carry him. Articulation exists solely to

prevent the administrative divisions (i.e., primary grades – junior high – senior high – college level) from impeding this process of formal education.

Stone (1969) succinctly and thoroughly detailed the need for articulation both at the traditional levels as well as at all levels of the educational process. Part of the need for coordination arises from the diversified educational system now in existence, a result of constructing a system of formal education from widely dissimilar philosophies and geographical areas. As so aptly stated by Russell and Judd (1940):

> The American child begins his formal education in a German kindergarten, then moves up into the Prussian elementary school, from which he progresses to the essentially American junior or junior and senior high school, and possibly on to the originally English college and finally the German graduate school (p. 554).

Add to this assemblage of educational institutions the junior college, the community college, the comprehensive community college, the senior college, and the university and articulation at all levels becomes at once highly improbable but absolutely necessary.

To compound further the situation, the options afforded students today are varied and numerous. Students may drop into a given institution for a variety of reasons – to gain specific knowledge, to satisfy an employer's requirement, or simply for pleasure. Likewise, they may drop out for other reasons – to gain employment, to transfer up to a higher level institution, or to transfer to a lower level institution. Kuznik (1972) referred to this latter process as the reverse-transfer phenomenon when he studied the characteristics of students who transferred from four-year institutions to community colleges.

In summary, the whole education system, and especially the differentiated post-secondary education system existing today, demands increased efforts by everyone involved to ease effectively a student's transition in any direction as he moves through the process. The community college, due to its unique educational philosophy and purposes, plays an important role in articulation in all the student options mentioned above.

Types of Articulation

Articulation falls readily into several categories, or classifications, which serve only to allow a closer scrutiny of the various aspects of this complex subject. One broad classification scheme divides articulation into formal and informal activities. Formal coordination between a community college and its environmental partners (i.e., high schools, senior institutions, industry, and the community) include such official entities as an articulation officer, a local articulation committee, or an appointed liaison committee (or person) within the college. An articulation officer within the college may have the responsibility of establishing and maintaining contact and rapport with local high schools, selected senior institutions, local or regional industries, and the community at large. He may or may not work closely with an articulation committee, composed of leaders from each of the segments of the educational environment – including students and graduates. This committee may function

on a regularly scheduled basis or may serve on an ad hoc basis when a given situation arises which warrants its consideration.

Frequently, neither of the approaches above is used, but a combination of the two occurs. One person is appointed as a liaison with local high schools (most likely a counselor or the admissions officer), and another with local industry, another with the appropriate four-year institutions, and so on. Liaison committees may be used for the same purposes. These individuals or groups work independently, only occasionally consulting with one another when an articulation problem involves two or more areas. For example, a proposal for a new course which meets the needs of local industry might cause problems with the nearby four-year institution with respect to transferability of the course.

Informal articulation consists of subtle but powerful influences such as individual and institutional attitudes, and unofficial attempts at solving small problems of coordination. Menacker (1975) suggested that this informal category of articulation can support or undermine the formal activities to such an extent that, even in officially sanctioned efforts, its effects must not be overlooked. Individual faculty members must realize the benefits to be derived from—and must strongly believe in—coordination between the college and the other entities in the educational environment if the total articulation effort is to be successful.

Another classification approach separates articulation into vertical and horizontal components. Vertical articulation consists of the conventional processes—coordinating the transfer upward from high school to college (two-year or four-year institution) and from two-year institution to four-year institution, or vice versa.

Horizontal articulation, however, is often ignored, but perhaps in today's educational climate is just as viable and important as its perpendicular antecendent. Students may desire to move laterally instead of vertically to another level. Moving into and out of an educational level deserves equal attention whether the student is moving vertically or horizontally.

Compared to the above categorizations, another popular classification system seems quite complex. Within this taxonomy, articulation is divided by Menacker (1975) into four general categories: (1) educational specialties articulation, (2) administrative articulation, (3) subject (or curricular) articulation, and (4) guidance-centered articulation. Educational specialties articulation consists of all the coordinating efforts within an educational field or area, such as mathematics, science, engineering, or health. Administrative articulation occurs when administrators at the community college and the other levels make a personal and institutional commitment to cooperative endeavor. Curricular articulation consists of those efforts made to ease the transition in subjects spanning the different levels. It involves, for example, development of skills at one level which are prerequisite for success at the next sequential level. Menacker further emphasizes the central theme and dominating importance of guidance centered articulation. This is where program selection, admission, transferability, academic and social adjustment, and other important activities occur.

Articulation and the Community College

According to Jennings (1970), "the community college presumes to be the new and necessary social invention that will articulate into the social structure and convert our disorderly and often hurtful society into a pervasive, responsible learning environment" (p. 15). Though intended as a criticism of the community college movement, Jennings' remarks may provide us with a logical, theoretical basis for the community college. The comprehensive approach to education of necessity indicates that the institution strives to be all things to all students, within the limits of its resources. The philosophy of the community college, according to Fields (1962), includes the following factors: (1) it is democratic, both in theory and operation; (2) it has comprehensive, relative programs; (3) it is adaptable to changing conditions, implementing and phasing out programs as needed; (4) it is related to the community, and responds to community needs; and, (5) it is dedicated to lifelong learning – not only terminal education and transfer education but opportunities for lifelong participation in learning activities.

The implementation of this philosophy requires the community college to engage in educational activities in six different areas:

1. Technical, vocational or semi-professional education
2. General Education
3. Liberal arts education
4. Adult Education
5. Developmental education
6. Community services

When successful in all six areas, Fields refers to the institution as a comprehensive community college.

How does the community college relate to all these activities and attempt to operationalize its basic philosophy? Only through effective, continual articulation can the institution hope to accomplish this formidable task. Burnett (1976) suggested the following articulation model to indicate a proper working relationship (see opposite page).

Notice that the comprehensive community college is at the center of the environment, with lines of coordination, or articulation, connecting each vertical and horizontal relationship to the college. The double-headed arrows show coordination in both directions, simultaneously. The fact that the lines are solid indicates co ntinuous articulation, not a sporadic or temporary situation. Vertical articulation is indicated as one moves from high up to the community college or from there up to the senior college. Horizontal articulation has traditionally involved any lateral transition within an educational level, such as transferring from one public school to another. Using the above model, one can extend this conventional concept to include a horizontal coordination – at the community college level – with both industry and the community. Thus, a student may move laterally into or out of the community college from either industry or the community. This latter feature, the improving of relations between the community college and both industry and the community, is the unique part of this model.

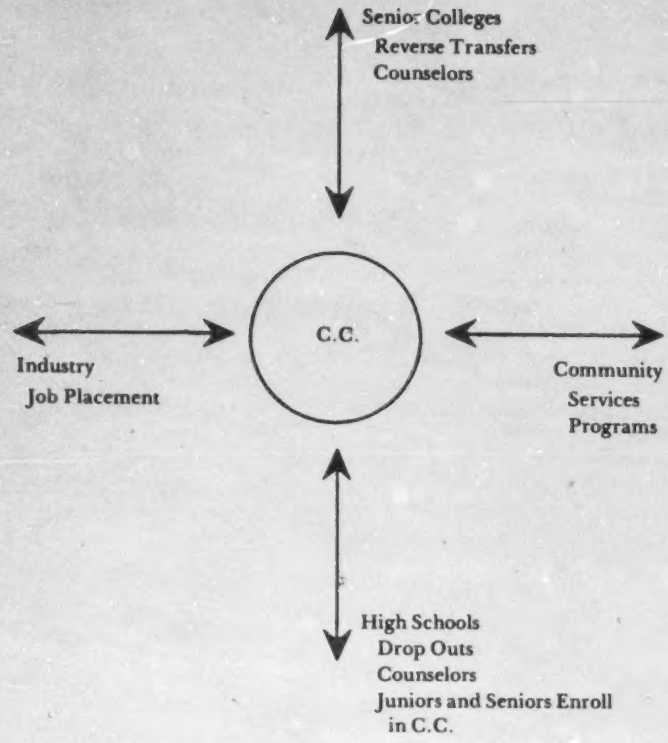

Figure 1. Articulation of the Community College with the Community

Articulation with High Schools

Since the community college still receives most of its students from local high schools, effective methods of articulation are a necessary prerequisite for smooth transition of students from the latter institution to the former. As indicated by Monroe (1972), the community college is the operationalization of the concept of universal higher education—offering two years of higher education at low cost to the student. According to Ferrin (1970), there are four major barriers to universal higher education—financial, academic, motivational, and geographic. Ferrin indicated that junior colleges (including community colleges) have attacked all four barriers. By charging little or no tuition, the financial barrier is partially overcome. Open-door admissions policies help to alleviate traditional academic barriers. Since community colleges are generally located in densely populated areas, the geographic barrier is reduced. Finally, the successful reduction of the motivational

problem will depend on the articulative expertise demonstrated by the two-year institution.

Perhaps a simple model will clarify articulation processes between the high school and the community college:

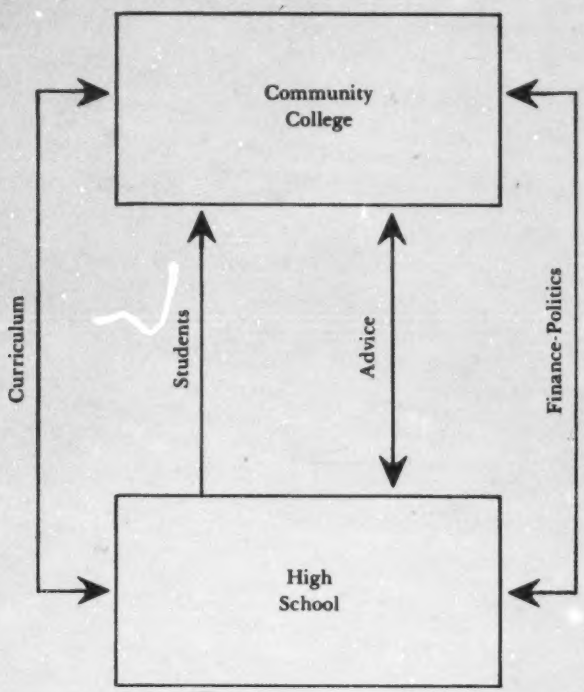

Figure 2. Articulation between the Community College and the High School

As illustrated by this simple model, students move vertically from the high school to the college. Curriculum, a connection between institutions, is a solid line with arrowheads on both ends, indicating a continuous, mutual concern of both institutions. The curriculum of one institution should not determine that of another but should be a joint effort with representatives from both institutions regularly evaluating and recommending up-to-date improvements to all curricula for both institutions. Of course, this is but one of many sources of curricular change, as will be shown later.

Advice flows continuously, in both directions, via formal and informal articulation procedures.

A final point, often one of major importance, is the competition which often develops between high schools and community colleges for the financing

needed so desperately by both institutions. This delicate matter, often complicated by politics, can destroy articulative efforts in other areas. Joint efforts to obtain proper levels of funding for both types of institutions, not for one at the expense of the other, is the ideal. Both institutions must be willing to work for the matriculating student, making their transfer easier and less traumatic.

Specific recommendations for effective articulation are many and varied. In the area of administrative articulation, every effort must be made by both administrations to establish viable coordination, both formal and informal, between institutions. The high school principal, his staff, and public school officials as well as the college administrative staff, advisory boards, and governing boards, and the faculties at both levels must all believe in and work toward making the student's educational experience a smooth, continuous process to the limit of his capabilities. More specifically, articulation officers, articulation committees, and other joint efforts must become a continuous part of each institution's routine. But the efforts themselves must not become routine, and they will not if appropriate attitudes prevail among those participating. In fact, new life may be instilled in each institution through individual and group input into the future of these two sequential levels of the educational system.

Curricular articulation readily follows. As pointed out earlier, curricula should be looked at jointly so that one institution's program does not control that of the other.

Another important area is in guidance centered articulation. According to the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education (1970), guidance, both career-oriented and personal, is one of the most important functions of the community college. This institution serves many students who are at the crucial point of trying to decide on a lifetime occupation and life style. Thus, through cooperation with local high schools, a smoother transition from high school to community college is attained. This cooperation may include visits to the community college by high school students on a group or individual basis for a closer look at educational alternatives open to them. Or it may include visits by community college personnel to local high schools for the same purpose—not once, but on a regular basis. Joint work sessions between high school guidance counselors and community college student services personnel would increase the understanding between these two groups.

One must not forget that the reason for coordination and cooperation is to serve the student. As so aptly stated by Kelley (1971), "articulation . . . should focus on the student and be concerned with helping him to move from the high school to a junior college setting and on to a senior college or university setting" (p. 19). It seems appropriate now to look at the next logical step in the vertical matriculation of students from a community college to a senior college.

Articulation with Senior Colleges

Relationships between the community colleges and the senior institutions are illustrated by the model below:

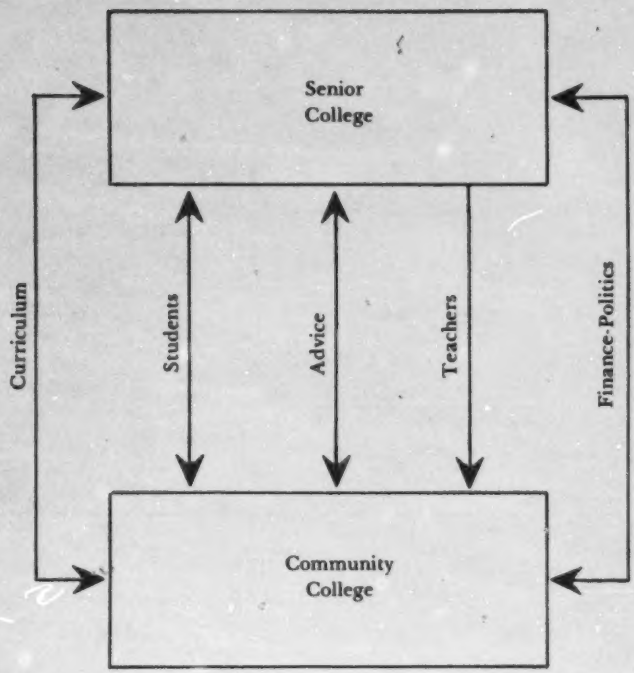

Figure 3. Articulation Between the Community College and the Senior College

As was true with the high school-community college relationship, note that students transfer upward, curricular changes and improvements are a joint effort, and financial support, which is often an issue of contention, should also be a joint effort to obtain fair and equitable support for both institutions. Advice still flows in both directions. Two new features, however, are immediately evident. First, many of the teachers in a community college may be graduates of a local senior institution. Second, reverse-transfer students are present and must be considered in establishing college relations.

According to Monroe (1972), there were practically no formal articulation efforts between community colleges and senior colleges prior to 1950. By 1960, he indicated, coordination between these two types of institutions was formalized in California, Florida, and Illinois. By 1970, most states had formal mechanisms to coordinate all phases of higher education—including, in some states, master plans which place all institutions of higher education under the control of a central board.

Most studies of articulation between community colleges and senior colleges have been concerned with the transferability of credits from the former

institution to the latter. According to Hunter (1966), the subject has much broader implications. He identified the three implementing forces behind effective articulation between community colleges and senior colleges as (1) identifying, in the minds of everyone involved, the community college as part of higher education, (2) understanding the purposes of this unique institution, and (3) understanding the importance of the community college in today's system of higher education. If administrators, faculty, students, parents, and all others involved understand and accept these three basic principles, effective articulation is essentially assured.

Again, articulation officers and committees are examples of formal articulation between the community college and the senior college. Committees may be statewide as long as local committees, either standing or ad hoc, are utilized to supplement the total effort. As was the case when studying coordination between high schools and community colleges, articulation involves joint efforts in educational specialties, administration, curriculum, and guidance. As before, articulation varies with chosen occupational-educational goals. Administrators at all levels must support the concept of easing student transfers. Curriculum coordination is a necessity to insure maximum credit transfer for students. Guidance personnel at both institutions must work together to develop mutual understandings and to increase the effectiveness of the counseling and advising at both levels. In *Guidelines for Improving Articulation Between Junior and Senior Colleges* (1966), procedures for developing effective articulation in these areas were given as: (1) identifying problems, (2) initiating study of the problem, (3) developing solutions to problems, and (4) accepting, ratifying, and implementing agreements.

Knoell and Medsker (1965) found that transfer students themselves have valid input into the study of transfer problems. Students considered in this study felt that better communications between the student and the senior institutions would solve some problems, while more complete information, preferably in written form, if available at the community college, would solve others. The major problem to them was communications—between colleges and between each college and the individual student.

Articulation with Industry

Mohs (1962) referred to the community college as a distributing agent, from which some students go directly into business or industry after a stay of one or two years. Other students continue on to senior colleges or enter specialized training institutions. He further alluded to the community college's responsibility toward the working adult through part-time, evening programs. Job placement is another aspect of the college-industry relationship. Though seldom mentioned in this context, effective articulation is needed to ease the student's transition from college to industry and vice-versa. Students must be allowed to drop in, drop out, or in today's jargon stop in and stop out, according to their needs, not according to the college's convenience. As recommended by the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education (1971), more opportunities must be available for lifelong learning according to the students' needs.

Specific articulation processes should include, as a minimum, considerations of the student, industry, administration, curriculum, and guidance. For the student desiring to stop out for purposes of a working experience, consideration must be given to all of the above areas. Is it best for the student? Is career counseling or personal counseling indicated? Does the curriculum include opportunities to integrate working experiences with formal learning experiences (e.g., internship, cooperative education programs, clinical experiences)? Would financial aid solve a problem of insufficient resources? From this simple example it is evident that articulation in this horizontal plane may be one of the most difficult concepts to implement. As usual, informal efforts by faculty and staff make the difference between success and failure.

Additional coordination on a formal basis is required if a community college is to maintain curricula and programs which are responsive to local industrial needs. Advisory committees, with local businessmen and industrial representatives—those familiar with the needs of area employers—hold a valuable position in this process. On the other hand, faculty participation as consultants, and periodically returning on full-time basis to the industrial setting, is most effective in creating bridges between the college and the industry.

These coordinating efforts are equally important to technical or occupational programs and to students who wish to stop in or out. These transitions should be made easier through joint efforts by the community college and industry.

A model of college-industry relations is given below:

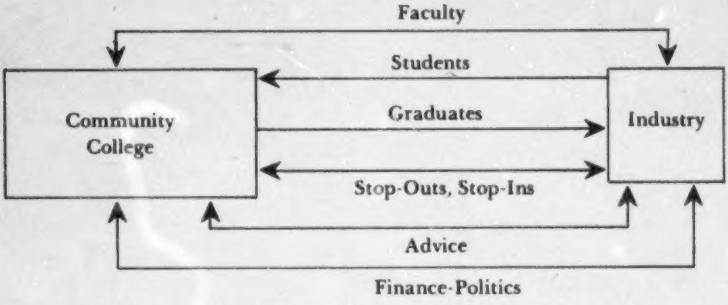

Figure 4. Articulation Between the Community College and Industry

From this model it is possible to extract some of the relationships discussed previously. Industry provides students, both full- and part-time, if appropriate programs are available at the college. Graduates of technical and transfer programs are hired by local business and industry. Stop-outs who are also accepted by industry may return to college at various times. Industry may provide financial support—tuition rebate to employees, scholarship donations,

grants, program underwriting, etc.—and may exert political pressure on, or on behalf of, the college. Advice is a continual process in both directions.

One of the unique features in this relationship involves faculty. Part-time faculty often work in local industries; some full-time faculty are recruited from these same businesses. But the reverse also occurs: faculty members may return, temporarily or permanently, to industrial careers. From this model it is evident that effective articulation is a necessity.

Articulation with the Community

Since one of the functions of the community college is to provide community services, efforts must be made to articulate the acceptance and success of these programs. Part of the total articulation problem—in both the vertical and horizontal planes—would be alleviated if the community service function were more successful. As more people are affected by a viable community service program successfully directed by the college, more understanding and support is generated within the community. If these programs are responsive to community needs, both formally and informally, a good rapport develops between the college and the community.

According to Monroe (1972), members of the local community must see the college as a community resource and a bonafide community member. Advisory committees should include local people—homemakers, businessmen, and educators, who are interested in maintaining a responsive institution. Curricular changes may originate in these committees or in other community groups. The people must feel they can call on the community college for advice, support, and responsive programs when the need arises. This approach requires the informal efforts of every staff member as well as formal articulation procedures.

Once more, a model illustrates the above relationships:

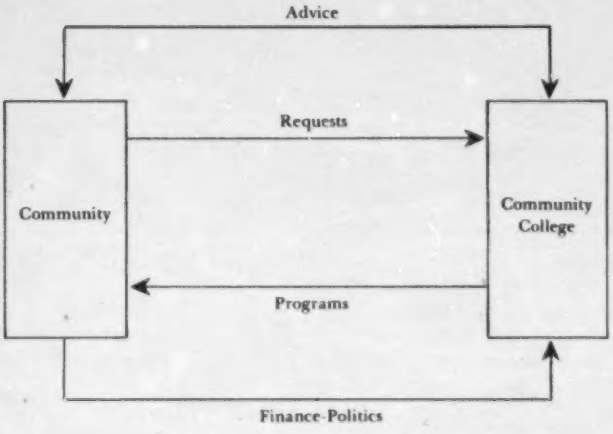

Figure 5. The Community College as a Member of the Community

Requests, as indicated, often originate in the community. These requests may result in specific programs, originating at the community college as the response to the need in the community. Advice flows in both directions. Local financial and political support can be favorable if the community service program is successful.

Statewide Articulation

Though alluded to previously, efforts to implement articulation policies at the state level deserve a separate, serious consideration. What kinds of cooperation can be initiated in the state capital that will have an impact at the local community college? According to Halstead (1974), simply because of the increasing number of transfer students who are moving from the community colleges to senior institutions, it will become necessary for state higher education systems to develop and adhere to appropriate policies and guidelines covering transfer students. But this need for statewide coordination considers only one of the four areas previously outlined in this article. Are there equally valid reasons for articulation at the state level in any of the three remaining areas? Again, Halstead (1974) pointed out the almost nonexistent lines of communication between a student's high school and the institutions of higher education the student may wish to attend. Halstead considered that in most cases the student is the mechanism of articulation. Any interactions which occur are between the student and a given college, the student and the high school, and the student and his parents and friends. The student becomes the communication link between the high school and the college! Halstead suggested that there must be some mechanism by which the colleges (including community colleges) within a state and even in adjoining states could make the necessary information available to high school students who plan to matriculate to higher education. In order more efficiently to match students to institutions of higher education and vice versa, this information must be available. Appropriate mechanisms might include written materials, toll-free long-distance telephone lines, direct television connections, or other data transmitting devices. The information transmitted, by whatever means, must be timely and, above all, accurate.

Another area of concern at the statewide level is the transition from the community college occupational programs into a job in local industry. According to Ebey (1969), unless the state control agency, the community college administrators, and the faculty and staff agree with the philosophy of occupational programs being offered at the community college level and demonstrate this agreement through articulation efforts, then graduates of such programs will be few and confused. Graduates will be few in number because faculty will convince many aspirants that a baccalaureate degree is the minimum degree to be desired, and confused because some will not be quite sure whether they should move horizontally into a transfer program or into the world of work. Community colleges are responsible for both transfer and occupational programs, and it should be clarified at the state level that each is equally important. Admittedly, informal articulation, evident in the attitudes of the college personnel and local industry, may have the greatest bearing on

the success or failure of occupational programs; but statewide policies should at least support the concept of such programs and should encourage support from all members of the educational environment—the college, industry, and the community.

While the community service programs of a community college must of necessity be controlled and coordinated on a local level, the importance of such efforts should be recognized, and further attempts to meet community needs should be encouraged at the state level.

The primary impetus for statewide control and articulation is the present differentiated post-secondary education system. As suggested by Martin (1971), many of the problems facing the community colleges are a direct result of the rapid expansion in both number of institutions and total enrollment during the last two decades. Many and varied types of two-year institutions have opened their doors, advertising their programs as college level when in fact they are not. These institutions, with inept administrators, unqualified faculty, and hastily constructed or borrowed curricula, taint the image of those institutions true to the philosophy, goals, and purposes of the community college, as espoused by Fields (1962).

Along this line of thinking, one of the most effective controls a state may choose to exercise is the requirement that all colleges and their programs be accredited by regional accrediting associations and occupational specialty accrediting associations, respectively. While these accrediting agencies establish only minimum critieria, these are usually sufficient to separate those institutions and programs which are well-planned and administered from those which are not.

Recommendations

What, specifically, can be done to increase the effectiveness of articulation between the community college and the four areas within its environment? Several suggestions have been mentioned in this article, but now these must be collected along with other recommendations into a concise set of guidelines.

First, due to the complexity and importance of coordinating with high schools, senior institutions, industry, and the community, an articulation officer should be appointed at each community college, supported by an articulation committee. If this is not feasible because of budgetary constraints, at least the articulation committee, consisting of representatives from each area of concern plus community college personnel, should be appointed. This committee should include the admissions officer, someone from student services, and faculty members, as well as the representatives from senior institutions, high schools, industry, and the community at large. The articulation committee should meet on a regularly scheduled basis to discuss all activities concerning articulation at any level, in either direction. These meetings should be open to all community college personnel, students, graduates, representatives from high schools, senior colleges, industry, and the community.

This formal structure should not replace or reduce the informal efforts between individual committee members and the institutions involved. The admissions officer and the guidance counselors must coordinate with local high

schools on admissions, financial aid, curricula, and counseling. Visits to the community college by high school students for purposes of inquiry and educational guidance should be encouraged. Qualified juniors and seniors in local high schools should be encouraged to enroll in selected beginning courses at the community college. The high schools should be visited by counselors and faculty members from the college. Career days in high schools are excellent opportunities for community colleges to interact with students, indicating to them some of the various educational opportunities available. Provisions should be made to offer high school drop-outs a chance to enter the community college. Of course, no encouragement should be given to current high school students to drop out and enroll in the college, but some consideration should be given to those students who previously dropped out.

To ease the transition from high school to college, open orientation periods for high school students (and drop-outs) and their parents should be scheduled periodically. Any information disseminated to students and parents should be timely and accurate. Written material consisting of admissions, curricular, and other pertinent information should be available at several locations—the community college, local high schools, industry offices, community centers, and local libraries.

Relations with the senior colleges will depend largely on the joint efforts of both institutions. Information in written form on all senior institutions in the state and, when appropriate, in adjoining states should be provided at the community college. This material, provided by the senior colleges, should be timely and accurate and should include, as a minimum, information on admissions procedures, curricular requirements at the senior institutions, transferability of community college credits, and predictions of success based on previous transfer students' records. This information would aid in matching students and institutions. Students who plan to transfer to senior colleges need and deserve this information and should have it available at the community college. Also, faculty advisers and guidance personnel at the community college should know whom to contact at the senior institution for answers to specific, unanticipated questions arising prior to transfer. Students, in any case, should not be required to serve as their own articulation representatives.

As more senior colleges continue to implement upper-division, or two-plus-two, programs—building on existing programs in community colleges—special efforts must be made by both types of institutions to ensure smooth transition of students in these programs from the latter institution to the former. Joint curricular articulation committees must strive for compatible curricula at both levels. Students entering such programs at the freshman level at the community college should have complete curricular, transfer, and occupational opportunity information and requirements available. This is important in the traditional transfer, or general education programs but critical in occupational, or technical, programs.

Relations with industry involve formal committee activities, as well as informal activities by faculty, guidance personnel, administrators, and representatives from industry. Special programs, to include seminars, workshops, short courses, and training sessions, and meeting rooms may be

requested by local businessmen. The community college should serve as neutral territory, serving the needs of industry along these lines to the limits of the college's capabilities. In today's complex technological era, the training and educating of employees are beyond the internal capabilities of all but the largest of industries. The local college can serve in this capacity, becoming the training center, providing space, facilities, expertise—either internal or external—and coordination for such activities. As mentioned previously, recruiting of full- and part-time faculty from industry and the return, either temporarily or permanently, of faculty to industrial settings are desirable in general education courses and essential in occupational and technical courses and programs.

Finally, articulation with the community involves both formal and informal activities which aid the community college in serving the people in its service area. Advisory committees, as mentioned previously, provide valuable input, but faculty attitudes set the tone of the community service program. Many of the community needs may be visible only to the faculty of the community college because of their dual role as educators and citizens. Thus, community service programs and projects can originate and be implemented by the community college, only to be later recognized and supported by the community.

An often overlooked fact is that community college faculty members and administrators are also members of the community. As such, they should become involved in civic and community affairs. The services of the college should be made available for use by the community, except for political uses, in civic affairs and community projects.

Those who, until recently, were not considered as bona fide prospective students by the community college must be reached and served. In any community, nontraditional students are waiting to be served. Women, who desire a second career or selected educational experiences, should find the community college and its programs especially attractive. Ethnic minorities, the physically handicapped, and older adults must be served by stimulating, timely programs offered by the community college. Off-campus and open-campus programs support the articulation efforts in this area by easing the transition into college by these nontraditional students. In this one area, serving the nontraditional student, the community college can make one of its most valuable contributions to American higher education, but it remains one of the least explored areas in most institutions. Lifelong learning experiences fit into a conceptual framework that is yet to be operationalized.

Future Developments

Future efforts to attain effective articulation will require the use of innovative techniques to aid the student in lifelong learning experiences. For example, as suggested by Menacker (1975), why not use the recent advances in compact storage of records—via microfiche and computer memories—and the ease of transmission of information via data links between computer and terminal to aid articulation efforts? Counselors and students at the high school, via a computer terminal, could have instant access to the information stored in

the memory banks of the computer at the local community college. Or, likewise, the community college students could have access to the computer at a senior college. Information available could include curricular requirements, predictions of success at the respective institution, and even registration and admissions could be accomplished, on line, if the students so desired. The possibilities of this system hinge mainly on the attitudes of the administrators at the three levels involved and the budgetary constraints within which each institution must operate.

Horizontal articulation could likewise benefit from the use of modern technology by the community college. Computer links with industry and employment agencies could serve a two-fold purpose. First, students at the community college could have immediate access to employment opportunities—both full- and part-time—as well as manpower predictions for different occupational specialties in their desired region or state. Secondly, industry would have instant access to educational opportunities available at the community college—including the capability to enroll employees in selected courses. Again, the possibilities of such a cooperative effort depend on the attitudes of all institutions involved and the ever-present budgetary restraints.

Even if such drastic improvements in articulation are still not feasible at this time, other possibilites exist. More effective use could be made of radio, television, and the very common household appliance, the telephone. Scheduled programs, both radio and television, announced well in advance could orient high school students, industry, and the community at large to the philosophy, goals, and purposes of the community college. Educational television, on a regional or statewide basis, could be used for orientation, admissions, scheduling, and group counseling—especially if supplemented by direct telephone links to local high schools. Toll-free long-distance telephone lines could serve as articulation mechanisms, providing students and parents access to answers without excessive time or travel being involved.

In short, community colleges must take educational opportunities to the student, instead of requiring every student to travel to a central campus to attend on-site orientation meetings, meet personally or in a group with a guidance counselor and then an academic advisor, and then formally apply for admissions and return at a later date to schedule for and enroll in classes. The community colleges of the future must break away from traditional campus boundaries if they are to become true community organizations.

Conclusion

In this brief article, articulation has been examined in both its traditional and a newly emerging role. In the system today of differentiated post-secondary education and varied occupational options, combined with predicted declines in total college enrollments, the community college is in an enviable position. This type of institution can no longer content itself, however, with considering only the conventional vertical and horizontal articulation efforts; it must relate equally to high schools, senior colleges, industry, and the community it serves. Special efforts, both formal and informal, must be made to ease the transition into and out of college for those referred to by Cross (1971) as New Students.

These students will require administrative, curricular, and guidance centered articulation to guarantee them a chance to succeed in higher education. Other special students must be considered—women, ethnic minorities, the physically handicapped, older adults—and their higher education needs must be met by the community college.

In conclusion, since articulation should aid the student in moving from one academic level to another, or from an academic level into a career and lifestyle, educators must strive to remove any existing barriers and obstacles in the students' paths. Equally important is not creating new and more disastrous obstacles in the effort to stabilize and organize the current community colleges. Every effort made to ease the transition of students into and out of the community colleges is certainly a positive one in the articulation process.

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